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ABSTRACT

Approaches to creative, modified, and new management strategies and practices are offered as justifications for the continued development of effective and responsive community colleges. Judith S. Eaton describes the dangers in isolating academic concerns from management decision processes. Dorothy M. Burns advocates centralization of human resource services and mainstreaming academic personnel administration. Karl J. Jacobs describes the new style of administration evolving from collective bargaining and the promise of maturing leadership, teamwork, and political acumen. William J. Mann suggests that financial managers begin to educate college personnel to needs assessment processes related to maximizing scarce resources in an era of retrenchment. Ernest R. Leach assesses consumer needs in relation to student development and college service areas. Dennis L. Johnson offers insights into communicating a marketing process to all college personnel with an eye toward increasing enrollments. Richard L. Spencer deals with the role of institutional research in institutional renewal, planning, management, and evaluation systems. Richard T. Ingram describes current and future roles and responsibilities of college presidents and board members. Roseann Cacciola reviews ERIC literature on the topic of effective management of college resources to meet new educational goals. (RC)

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NEW DIRECTIONS FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGES

Managing in a New Era

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NEW DIRECTIONS FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGES

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Arthur M. Cohen, Editor-in-Chief
Florence B. Brawer, Associate Editor
Sponsored by the ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges

Number 28, 1979

Managing in a New Era

Robert E. Lahti
Guest Editor

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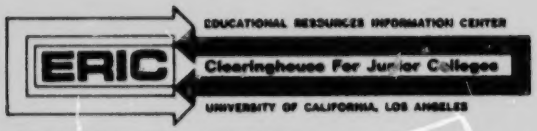

MANAGING IN A NEW ERA
New Directions for Community Colleges
Volume VII, Number 4, 1979
Robert E. Lahti, Guest Editor

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Editor's Notes

How shall I talk of the sea to the frog,
if he has never left his pond?
How shall I talk of the frost to the bird of the summer land,
if it has never left the land of its birth?
How shall I talk of life with the sage,
if he is the prisoner of his doctrine?
(Chuang-Tsu—4th century B.C.)

This poem may epitomize the position of a college manager who has administered an organization primarily during its discovery and growth stages. Perhaps a leadership style has been set, an incremental planning strategy adopted, and a liberal staffing and resource allocation process established that has been judged to deliver a successful community-oriented college. Will past and present managerial skills and strategies suffice for future preservation and maintenance of a college that appears to be headed for a period when financial resources and enrollments may not grow appreciably, and may even decline? In the future should presidential failure for technical or administrative incompetence be as excusable as failure resulting from unpredictable political events? Given the two major problems of energy and environmental conservation this nation faces, can any organizational manager afford not to be in a mode of assessment, strategic planning, staff development, and better utilization of financial, human, and physical resources?

With public confidence in higher education somewhat eroded in the past few years and the continuing debate of what constitutes legitimate higher education, can we afford to continue with a "business as usual" attitude? Such conditions create an urgent need for institutions to deal with problems both external and internal to the academic community. Failure to do so will have negative effects on the integrity of a college or university.

The emphasis and purpose of this volume of *New Directions for Community Colleges* is to stimulate the thinking of college managers and faculties in areas where creative thinking, modified administrative practices, and new strategies may be justified for the continued devel-

opment of effective and responsive community colleges. The chapters that follow relate to such significant areas of college administration as instruction, student services, personnel practices, governance, financial planning, admissions, marketing, information retrieval and processing, and relationships between trustees and administrators.

The authors, all professional practitioners in their subject, discuss and suggest cutting-edge ideas and thought that can lead to improved management of community colleges in the future.

I deeply appreciate the individual effort each author contributed to this volume. I trust their ideas and thoughts will stimulate other professionals to action, reaction, and further sharing during the challenging times ahead for higher education.

Robert E. Lahti
Guest Editor

Robert E. Lahti is president of Community College of Denver and founding president of William Rainey Harper College, Illinois.

An informed, intimate relationship needs to be maintained between managers in community colleges and the academic process in order to have genuine academic leadership.

Academe. Action, and Leadership: How to Avoid Overmanaging a Nonevent

Judith S. Eaton

As community colleges begin to enter the decade of the 1980s, we are undertaking a careful review of the education role and purpose of our institutions. At the same time we are giving increasing attention to sound management theory and practice. So armed, it would appear we can responsibly meet the future needs of our respective constituencies. Yet our colleges are faced with a potential problem of serious magnitude: the management processes that provide for our institutional effectiveness are in danger of becoming increasingly isolated from important academic processes needed for the realization of our educational purpose. If we do not exercise extreme care, we may reach a stage in which successful management is measured by criteria that ignore academic purpose and value. This may result in managers who lack a clear vision of academic purpose and colleges without academic leaders. This danger deriving from the increased size and complexity of our

institutions demands that managers obtain some formal training in administration and collective bargaining, and that they have an ongoing preference to leave major academic decision making almost exclusively in faculty hands.

Questions about appropriate preparation for academic leadership roles continue to be with us. Although we continue to select leaders with educational backgrounds, we see the value of individuals with corporate experience or formal business training. We tend to use the terms "administrator," "manager," "leader," and "executive" interchangeably; but some theorists suggest that we distinguish managers as policymakers from administrators as decision implementors (McManis and Harvey, 1978). Others contend that managers and leaders think and act differently and have differing approaches, motivations, and histories (Zaleznik, 1977). Peter Drucker (1977, p. 53) speaks of managers as "composers and conducters." Rosabeth Kanter (1977) reminds us that managerial occupations require skills and knowledge that are described only in general terms and measured imprecisely or not at all. Similarly, Vannevar Bush states, "The good manager is the practitioner of an art and art in any form does not yield to analysis" (Levinson, 1975, p. 127). While adequate definition may currently elude us, some clarification of what we are about is not beyond us.

Leadership needs in community colleges should be considered not only in terms of appropriate management training, style, and skills but also in the context of our academic reason for being and the values for which we stand. This is not to say that managers should be academicians. It is to say that academic leadership requires a unique combination of managerial skills and an informed and flexible concept of academic process.

Acadmic Leadership: A Workable Description

Whatever else truly effective leaders do, they provide charismatic initiative and thrust by which things get done. They engender trust, respect, and identification. They make things happen. Most important, they provide a vision for the future. Leadership may be additionally reflected in and by organizational charts, job descriptions, and reporting relationships to a governing board. What is critical for academic leadership relates to the nature and quality of what we accomplish.

Academic leadership should derive from our commitment to intellectual pursuit in its broadest sense. "Academic" frequently refers to specific instructional programs predicated upon a clear and rational

commitment to the value of the intellectual. While not exclusively cognitive, the academic emphasizes theoretical skills and their development. The emphasis may take the form of liberal arts, general education, or career training. It includes a variety of instructional modes and curriculum structures. It may inform but is different from short courses, counseling, athletic programs, and the testing center. Leadership associated with these pursuits is preeminent in determining and realizing the respective purposes of our institutions. What we identify as our academic value structure will provide the context for all other activities.

The effectiveness of future academic leadership rests in part on the ability to apply solid managerial skills to clearly identified academic issues of major significance. While "significant" issues will vary with time, we move into this last portion of the twentieth century very much in need of sound thought and action in three areas: the meaning of general education, a commitment to academic standards, and determination of institutional purpose. These issues are not mutually exclusive. Their resolution or lack thereof will determine our success or failure in providing high-quality academic leadership in the near future. Academic leadership is and will continue to be defined and acknowledged not only in terms of management structure and process but also in terms of the issues this leadership identifies and addresses.

Of primary significance in our consideration of these issues is our acknowledgment of responsibility for action. As academic leaders, we are regularly called upon to make decisions affecting the purpose of our colleges, their academic programs, and their standards of achievement. The effective exercising of this leadership requires at least the following:

- Familiarity with the philosophical dimensions of the issues
- Cognizance that determination of these issues is ongoing and changing, requiring simultaneously a stable framework and the flexibility to accommodate change
- Refusal to allow day-to-day operation and decision making either to preclude comprehensive consideration of the issues or inadvertently create policy
- Awareness of the practical, organizational response of others to these areas

General Education

"General education" has been used to refer to a plethora of techniques, courses, requirements, disciplines, and degrees for many

years. Although general education is frequently characterized as "endangered," confusion exists about its major problem areas. The structure of the curriculum, the espoused purpose of general education, its status as "required," and the values upon which programming demands are made are areas of concern for effective general education administration. Whatever the structure and status of the curriculum, decisions need to be made about what "ought" to comprise general education. Decisions to maintain "traditional" course structure deriving from the disciplines or to encourage an interdisciplinary, thematic, or general studies structure will not provide definition of general education purpose and intent. Whether or not general education is a requirement may affect its survival at some institutions. Encouraging its survival, however, is distinct from determining its content. At its best general education has become identified with assisting people to develop theoretical, affective, and cognitive skills that can result in a full, productive, coherent, and meaningful human existence. At its worst it reflects much verbiage and little substance.

A genuine difficulty in dealing with what ought to constitute general education appears to be an unwillingness to be appropriately prescriptive about this topic. We read repeatedly that general education speaks to a knowledge of the past, social and cultural values, awareness of the present, and the theoretical skills attendant to these forms of knowing. Hesitancy appears to set in at the point where we as educators must make decisions about how this knowing will be attempted. We need to overcome our reluctance to demand competencies, set requirements, and in general make the educational value judgments necessary for our success.

The issue of general education and our response to it is at the core of our academic commitment. We as academic leaders need to articulate a viable definition of general education for our own environments. This definition should derive from a set of basic assumptions about the meaning of education and its significance for our culture. It can focus on needed results in the form of general skills that can be attained from a variety of areas of inquiry. Perhaps we have spent too much time agonizing over a definition of general education as a timeless universal for all education efforts. We need to reflect upon what is happening with students in classes we have scheduled, who are exposed to a curriculum we have approved, instructional strategies we have encouraged, a grading policy we have endorsed, and the staff we have recommended for hire. All such decisions imply a position concerning general education and its meaning.

General education, the humanities, and the liberal arts may be viewed as significantly differing educational efforts that share some similarity of orientation. The humanities and the liberal arts are not only a collection of disciplines; they reflect a philosophical commitment. The assumptions we may adopt for our general education efforts are consistent with the goals, concerns, and efforts in these areas. As Roger Shattuck states, "the humanities stand not for an autonomous tradition of knowledge for knowledge's sake, but for its ultimate usefulness to what is most human in us, to the individual as the accountable agent of his actions and as the potential seat of greatness" (Carnegie Foundation, 1977, p. 101). Sidney Hook defines the liberal arts as those subjects that "deal with the ideas and ideals of what is of most worth in life, give course and direction to experience, and reinforce our awareness of the indispensability of human choice in every moral situation" (Murchland, 1976, p. 23). In a similar vein Lloyd Averill (1977, p. 6) speaks to the object of liberal arts as "the development of those essential skills which constitute a full, competent, responsible life. They help men and women acquire the judgment and power they need for maximum human fulfillment both as individuals and as contributors to the welfare of others."

General education concerns do not exclude consideration of the technical, occupational, or vocational. Whether or not we agree with Whitehead (1975) that technical education should be a real intellectual enlightenment if it is to meet the practical needs of the nation, we acknowledge personal and social need for such training. Our discussions of general education tend to focus on issues other than skill development because it is these other issues that confuse us. The ongoing theme of these issues is the capacity and obligation of those involved in general education to provide a culturally meaningful context in which to learn economically and practically useful skills. We do not argue over the value of technical skills when we talk about general education; we do raise questions about what areas of the body of knowledge that constitutes our past and present are to be included in attempts to provide comprehensive educational experiences for interested individuals.

Our challenge is one of conversion. We need to transform the energy associated with theoretical consideration of general education to an action plan for ourselves and our faculties. We need to devote less attention to the organizational obstacles of discipline and department and concentrate on the development of structures and processes that provide a suitable, productive framework in which general education needs and issues may be addressed. A council on general education,

the curriculum committee, community advisory committees, and long-range planning efforts can constitute the needed framework. Rather than contend that they have not and cannot work, it is our responsibility to make them work or develop suitable alternatives. Quality academic leadership can address the emerging practical problems of curricular change (which nobody wants), degree requirements (which can be debated endlessly), and faculty load (which must be faced anyhow).

Academic Standards

Academic standards may refer to grading, course or degree requirements, "back to basics," an end to the "revolving door," or diagnostic testing. The term embodies a concern for identification of significant levels of achievement. Chase (1978) maintains that our colleges and universities have failed to maintain even minimum academic standards. His evidence constitutes a description of many of our institutions and a menu from which to select areas of concentration. Chase mentions the dropping of requirements, course proliferation, the trend toward marks instead of grades, grade inflation, and questionable academic grievance policies. Concerns have been expressed about basic skill preparation of our students and, at the other extreme, the identification of excellence (Carnegie Foundation, 1977). As academic leaders, it is our task to identify if, when, where, and for what purpose standards are needed.

Review and reassessment of academic standards need not impinge upon academic freedom, unduly constrict organizational structure, or inordinately burden students. To the contrary, colleges that establish committees or commissions on academic standards are creating potentially viable opportunities for constructive and mutual faculty, student, and administrative attempts at institutional renewal. Standards review can be integrated with program, faculty, and staff development. Procedures and criteria for self-evaluation and effectiveness of planning can be developed and reviewed. Recruitment and retention efforts can be improved.

Consideration of academic standards need not mean a return to lockstep requirements and grading. It need not mean the 1950s are upon us and we have abandoned the 1960s. Consideration of standards should leave us with the benefit of both decades. We can define and demand quality and demonstrated accomplishment without giving up all the flexibility associated with the removal of requirements, nonpuni-

tive grading, and "relevance." We have behaved irresponsibly in our eagerness to accommodate all standards. "Doing your own thing" may result in an ability to do nothing. Requiring nothing means ignoring responsibility for academic, intellectual, and community leadership. Claiming that all degrees, students, and credits are vaguely equal enshrines mediocrity and eschews excellence. All is not equal; achievement of value is not to be confused with the opportunity to value. The genuine challenge facing us is the preservation of comprehensive opportunity in the creation of quality.

We can arrange a liaison between the traditional and nontraditional. Our nontraditional clientele can have the advantages of flexible scheduling, credits, grading, and instructional methods. Their ease of access can be maintained. Their learning differences can be identified and reflected in their programs. At the same time, benchmarks, criteria, or accomplishment levels can be established. Standards and flexibility need not be antithetical. Academic standards, then, refers to a collection of concerns about evaluation of the work we and our students do. It raises a basic question concerning the nature of accomplishment. Responses to these concerns will have implications for our programs, their presentation, the instructional support, and student personnel services we provide the public. Academic leaders will need first to determine which issues need to be considered within their respective institutions and then proceed to focus on identification and assessment of the results of our educational efforts as distinct from preoccupation with only the efforts themselves.

Review of academic standards will take place in the context of an institution's current issues and concerns. Because issues associated with academic standards cut across total college functioning, there can be a significant secondary impact on total organizational structure. Multiunit operations can develop greater consistency of policy and procedure among units. Administrative decision making will consequently appear more consistent. Whether faculty involvement is in the form of shared governance or collective bargaining, consideration of academic standards can encourage additional involvement in determination of education policy. This may result in better informed management and increased institutional communication about academic matters. Negotiations may reflect the results of a standards review when considering class size, faculty load, and instructional assignments.

It is the increasing interest in academic standards that is "new" for our colleges today. The objects or issues of that interest (for exam-

ple, grading, requirements, or developmental skills) have been with us for some time. An "action plan" developed to consider academic standards thus can draw upon existing structures within an institution in the form of interested staff, committees, or students. If trustees are to approve policy or resulting program changes, they need appropriate involvement. Policy action on standards that has not involved faculty may produce serious discord within an institution.

Determination of Institutional Purpose: What Comes First

An underlying theme associated with the growth and development of community colleges has been preparation. Community colleges have claimed to provide services whereby their clientele are "ready," "trained," and can take on the responsibilities of a given job or future education. With the most recent commitment to comprehensiveness, those who write community college mission statements have broadened the scope of promised preparedness to virtually all that one may wish to undertake in a lifetime. It is time for academic leaders to reexamine what we mean by preparation. While it may be highly desirable to provide opportunity for growth, change, and development for all possible persons, to attempt to do so overlooks yet another crucial characteristic of our espoused purpose. We have an obligation to be selective as a result of working with our respectively unique communities. We have yet to examine the potential inconsistency of our purpose as expressed by claiming comprehensiveness yet providing selective programming and services to the community.

As academic leaders, we have decisions to make concerning the kinds of programs and services our colleges will offer. We need to do so based upon the values of our respective publics. This places a major responsibility for educational planning on each of us. While sound community and fiscal data and acceptance of a leadership role for the community are important in determining priorities, we have the additional obligation to provide strong justification for including some programs and eliminating others. Assessment of ongoing programs, evaluation of new markets and needs, and awareness that planning should have a fluid and dynamic quality all require careful attention. "Articulating these understandings [about what colleges intend to accomplish] and providing for their continuing reassessment are the responsibilities of those who provide academic leadership for every institution. . . . The

results of the labors of the college's academic leadership should be a statement of the institution's mission that takes into account not only what the intended consequences of its educational efforts should be but also its traditions and resources. . . . Because situations change, the statement should allow for future amendment" (Carnegie Foundation, 1977, p. 151).

Planning challenges that capacity not only to develop alternative conceptual frameworks but also to see them successfully adopted. Planning models may appropriately include the elements of adequate data, consultation, and projection of needs and interests; this may not be enough. We cannot assume that "good" planning will succeed and "poor" planning will fail. Immediate and long-term educational planning requires the additional skill of implementation. The constituencies involved in planning efforts and their respective roles need to be handled within a clear framework of stated goals and objectives in order that there is some mechanism whereby various needs and interests can be rationally evaluated. Academic leadership in this context calls for an effective balancing of special concerns by means of a firm commitment to the vision of an institution and academic excellence. More directly, strong interpersonal skills and political acumen are important. Just as ongoing curriculum may reflect more of a political compromise with internal interest groups than concerned scrutiny of viable program alternatives, educational planning may reflect the price of peace with external constituencies rather than constructive response to community educational needs.

Academic leadership's current attempts to determine institutional purpose are enmeshed in a network of influences and power from a variety of sources. If there has been a time when faculty taught, administrators managed, boards preferred policy, and the community was consistently enthusiastic about programming decisions, it is no longer with us. A reasonably simple hierarchical model of decision making can no longer be used to guide administrative action. This model has enlarged, become more complex, and reflects a rapid pace of change. Faculty, boards, and the community have played increasingly strong roles in determining educational policy. Their respective expectations, control, and expanded decision-making authority must be considered when anticipating educational planning action. Failure to adequately consider the complexity of decision making can result in planning that reflects a compromise of vested interests or no planning at all. Pressures of boards, communities, the managerial system, collective

bargaining, and collegiality can result in management by accommodation that falls short of academic leadership. While management by accommodation may not be avoidable in all instances, the need to resort to it can be minimized by flexible leadership commitment to values, a realistic decision-making model, and, again, that vision of the future.

Academic Leadership, Management Structure, Management Processes

Suggestions about the focus and purpose of academic leadership require that attention be paid to the framework of operation in which such leadership is attempted. There is no one ideal management structure for this leadership. Management structures can, do, and should vary with the size, composition, and staffing of our institutions. Whatever the organization, academic leadership should be the primary responsibility of persons with sufficient authority to achieve results. In some institutions this may be a president. In others, depending on size and complexity, it may be a dean, vice-president, or provost.

The qualities previously discussed for academic leadership responsibility can be exercised in a framework that reflects planning, careful delineation of responsibility (preferably in the form of objectives), and evaluation. In short, some form of goal setting or a more comprehensive system of planning, managing, and evaluating provide for needed management processes. This is not an argument for any given management system employed in government, business, or education. It is a suggestion that academic leadership can be most effectively exercised in an environment of managerial clarity and efficiency. Many of our colleges employ some portions of a systemic approach. Few achieve the desired results in the form of avoidance of crisis management, effective planning, and a creative and comfortable administrative staff and faculty.

Viable management structures and processes require involvement with faculty, trustees, and community. Faculty play a special and crucial role in the creation and maintenance of academic focus and standards. The academic leader needs the skill to effectively involve faculty in academic decision making. This may take the form of shared governance standing committees, special councils, ad hoc task forces, department study groups, or collegewide commissions. It may require additional information sharing and consultation.

The commitment to faculty involvement may be addressed either within a management structure by working through the administrative organization or in concert with the management structure by a committee organization. Either arrangement calls for faculty development efforts directed in part at the creation of some institutional identity in addition to extant discipline or career program identity. Management development efforts should focus on creation of effective skills in participatory involvement. As Drucker (1968, p. 209) has pointed out: "It is highly desirable to bring the 'members' of organizations as far as possible into the decision-making process. Otherwise they cannot acquire any understanding of the realities of their institution. . . . Without such understanding, organization is always endangered."

The critical point, then, is that effective academic leadership requires careful attention to those academic issues deemed most significant now and in the future in the context of an organizational structure that enhances rather than impedes the likelihood of success. However urgent, painful, and important the issues of severely limited enrollments, fiscal resources, and staff, such concerns need to be viewed within an environment in which thorough and rational scrutiny of major academic commitments has resulted in the development of a sound philosophical foundation for institutional activity. This foundation is necessary for an institution to meet its educational responsibilities.

As faculties mature, administrative job changing diminishes, dollars are less available, trustees are more available, and legislative concern for results increases, the decisions made by those charged with academic management responsibility will increase in importance. These decisions and these managers will determine the unique style of our colleges. The issues discussed in this chapter are on the cutting edge of the decisions to be made. If we fail or inadequately consider these areas, we will contribute not only to institutional ineffectiveness, but also to the creation and maintenance of institutions essentially lacking in character and distinction—less than worthy of the respect our society is willing to give us.

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With a major portion of all community college budgets being spent on personnel and related costs and with personnel management becoming extremely complex, new approaches toward human resources management are crucial to the continuing vitality of community colleges.

Effective Personnel Administration—Better Utilization of Human Resources

Dorothy M. Burns

If institutions are to achieve their mission of educating students, they must be able to find a better way of managing and developing all the potential of the people they hire. Old, piecemeal, fragmented methods and structures cannot begin to cope with the realities and complexities of the late 1970s. Higher education must be directed to a new threshold of comprehensiveness in its organization for effective personnel administration and must be staffed with competent professionals who can lend strong leadership to the total institution or system.

The late 1970s are a far cry from the 1960s in higher education. More than a decade ago, bigger was better. Institutions were proud of their surging enrollments, burgeoning building programs, and budgets that were increased dramatically through the generosity of many legislatures and the ease of obtaining federal funds. Little heed was paid to

such mundane matters as future financial obligations imposed by the acceptance of federal grants. If departments were floundering, no one was terminated. They simply hired young Ph.D. firebrands who could breathe new life and spirit into faltering disciplines and research. If any personnel policies existed, they were taken lightly and often allowed faculty to name their own terms. For all practical purposes, employment decisions were made by an informal system among the professionals—the faculty and the dean. This collegial system worked well as long as institutions were growing and were relatively affluent.

But counterforces were at work. Expansionist bubbles were bursting, at least receding. Times were hard. A tax-weary public was challenging ever-increasing public college budgets. Inflation was taking its toll. Enrollments were approaching a steady state or even decreasing in many institutions. Legislatures and boards were demanding accountability and productivity. The ebb and flow of student interests after the violence of the 1960s and the impact of the counterculture were difficult to predict. Some people simply were unwilling to finance a college education if no jobs could be guaranteed as a result. Higher education—its very purpose and its value—found itself under attack from all sides.

At the same time, nontraditional students, women, and minorities were demanding access and programs they felt were appropriate and sufficiently flexible to meet their needs. Social legislation was affecting higher education with affirmative action requirements, equal pay for equal work, and minimum wages, imposing strict demands for action and reporting. A restless, insecure faculty and staff, caught in the throes of shrinking budgets and uncertain enrollments, began to organize for collective bargaining. All too soon followed staff militancy, organized unions, court cases, and grievances as many institutions simultaneously faced staff and faculty layoffs in order to balance budgets.

Drawn into the maelstrom of all these volatile currents and countercurrents, many institutions, particularly small, private colleges, did not survive. Other institutions with better reserves or better management did survive but had to face aggressively new, stark realities. Many studied in depth their total operations so they could gain control over scarce resources and establish accountability. They reviewed their missions and tried to establish clearer objectives. Many created management information systems so they could plan, monitor, and evaluate the achievement of their goals with some degree of effec-

tiveness. Almost all colleges and systems were struggling to balance expenditures with income.

Centralization of Human Resources Services

In our present setting, which continues to demand accountability, effective planning, and unusual expertise and knowledge, how are colleges to manage their most costly but vital resource—all the staff they hire to achieve their ends? Centralization of human resources management and development must be the answer. And with this largest and most costly resource, which is the major means for achieving the institution's mission, its proper place within the organizational structure must be as an arm of the chief administrative office.

Colleges hire a wide array of people with all manner of backgrounds in hundreds of classifications and assignments. The largest force is the faculty; the second largest is the support or classified staff; third is the administrative and management force; and fourth is the specialized professionals. Why centralize the personnel management of this total work force? Just on the basis of obvious complexity, there is no question of need whether one institution, a multi-campus system, or a large system is involved. Following are a few major reasons.

Common Elements. First, despite the diversity of the functions and backgrounds of the total work force, many common elements are necessary for effective administration, including personnel policies that reflect a common philosophy, collective bargaining contracts and their proper and consistent interpretation and administration, affirmative action requirements, staff evaluation procedures, records management and personnel files, data systems, professional growth plans, and salary and fringe benefits administration. There is no way a large number of administrators handling bits and pieces of such complex systems can be expected to have the necessary expertise and adequate time for being effective in such diverse personnel matters. Further, on so many issues there must be one, not multiple, answers and interpretations. The institution or system must be able to speak with one voice.

Technical Expertise. A centralized function makes it possible for the human resources unit itself to develop the necessary technical expertise in many diverse functions as well as personnel data information for all kinds of institutional needs in planning and budgeting. Further, for reasons of sound personnel administration and also for equity of treatment of employees, standard practices, procedures, and poli-

cies in the form of manuals, handbooks, and negotiated contracts must be coordinated and administered by one unit.

Budget Commitment. Third is the consideration of the proportion of the total budget committed to human resources in the form of salaries and fringes, somewhere between 50 and 85 percent at most institutions. It would seem obvious on the face that effective management of this resource would be one of the highest priorities and that the definition of effectiveness surely would encompass the concept of unified systems approach, if for no other reason than that of avoiding costly mistakes.

Major Goals of Human Resources Management

Another way of saying essentially the same thing is to state a few of the major goals of human resources management:

1. Forward-looking policies that provide incentives for retention, motivation, and growth of a competent staff;
2. Equitable treatment of all personnel;
3. Practices that meet all legal requirements and achieve institutional goals in affirmative action;
4. Resources of information and assistance to all management and supervisory staff;
5. Data base readily available for required internal/external reporting and control;
6. Counseling and information services for all personnel.

Organizational Unit

If institutions are to begin to meet these major objectives, there would seem to be little question about the need for comprehensive administration. This special organizational unit should be headed by a vice-chancellor or vice-president, reporting directly to the chief administrator of the institution or system. Immediately under the vice-chancellor or vice-president would be the specialists in collective bargaining, labor relations, affirmative action, classification/wage administration, and so on. In small institutions these specialities would have to be focused in the hands of one or two employees. In large institutions they could be handled by many individuals developing high levels of expertise. Additionally, because of the continuing need for legal counsel on

an array of personnel issues and challenges, the human resources unit must have direct, ready access to competent counsel. If counsel is retained to conduct collective bargaining sessions, this same counsel, if knowledgeable in general about labor law, could be engaged more broadly to support the personnel professionals. The more informed counsel is about the institution or system, the more effective the service rendered.

Mainstreaming Academic Personnel Administration

Personnel managers relegated to minor institutional roles may very well ask how they are to become a part of the academic mainstream with personnel responsibility for faculty as well as other personnel. The answer is that they can and should achieve this status in time, but the final responsibility must be recognized as a shared cooperative effort with academic administrators.

Academic administrators earnestly search for time to be educational leaders. Few want or are trained to handle the complexities of the present demands in personnel. They obviously must retain authority in selecting, evaluating, and assigning faculty; but beyond that many would rather leave the other complications to personnel professionals. Consequently, if the personnel professionals can demonstrate an ability to support and provide needed and useful information to academic administrators, their assistance will be accepted and in time will be sought. In a multitude of ways, personnel professionals can make academic administrators more effective in their own roles and give them the time to devote to educational matters. A few successful demonstrations should open the door to mainstreaming the services of the personnel professionals.

Faculty Staffing Problems. Many colleges and systems today face larger proportions of tenured faculty among the total faculty ranks. Major problems arise as a result. One is the problem of increasing average faculty age. Under present circumstances, there is little possibility of hiring new members, making it difficult to update and revitalize the present staff. A related problem is overstaffing in some programs and disciplines as a result of decreased enrollments or changes in student interests and work force needs. These problems require staff development programs and forward-looking policies that will help increase faculty effectiveness. Some faculty need to be redirected and to prepare for different assignments or in some instances

provided incentives to seek early retirement without substantial financial loss. Under these circumstances, all possible steps are usually taken before layoff is considered, although it may be the final action.

Analyses and Planning. Many personnel professionals are uniquely qualified to work closely with academic administrations in conducting analyses to help identify staffing problems and in developing plans for solutions, especially if they are included in institutional planning. For example, if the human resources office projects approximate retirement dates of faculty by disciplines and relates these data to enrollment trends by disciplines, the institution may discover that overstaffing in certain disciplines can be relieved by increasing incentives for early retirement—a solution much to be preferred to layoffs. The personnel professionals also can assist academic administrators in initiating policies that help faculty change directions professionally through professional growth incentives and staff development activities. After all options are considered and layoff is inevitable, personnel professionals are best equipped, in consultation with legal counsel, to devise and implement orderly, humane layoff plans for the total institution.

Faculty Evaluation. Another critical need in many institutions is an improved and more objective process for evaluating faculty and administrators. Peer evaluation undoubtedly will and should continue to be the basic process because peers are in the best position professionally to make these judgments. However, there is a need for position descriptions of professional duties and responsibilities, criteria for judgment of performance, procedures for the total process, and some objective data as well as qualitative information. Here again, many personnel managers can make a valuable contribution by assisting academic administrators in establishing better processes and procedures. Many personnel managers also can be helpful in initiating the management by objectives systems and merit pay schedules under consideration in many schools and already implemented in some.

Collective Bargaining. Personnel managers should take the lead in the realm of collective bargaining. They should help negotiate the contracts, having constant dialogue with the chief administrators and trustees in the process. Theirs should also be the major responsibility in interpreting the contract and in teaching others proper contract administration, including the handling of grievances. Similar leadership should be exercised in the monitoring of personnel procedures so they conform to federal and state law requirements, particularly affirmative action requirements.

Background Requisites: Personnel Professionals

Broad Background. To be effective in a comprehensive personnel role, personnel managers must acquire a broad knowledge of the total institution or system so their perspectives are also comprehensive. They also must learn to understand and appreciate faculty tradition—its strong commitment to shared governance, tenure, and academic freedom. To whatever degree may be possible, personnel managers should participate in faculty committees and even teach occasionally if they have the opportunity so they come to know firsthand the faculty and their concerns.

Special Graduate Studies. Further, personnel professionals should have opportunities for special graduate studies that develop their potential. Their colleges and associations like the College and University Personnel Association should exercise their influence upon universities to develop comprehensive graduate programs for administrators of human resources. Such programs should be planned to provide the expert knowledge in a wide array of personnel specialties, basic parameters in law impinging upon personnel practices, and the development of special abilities and talents required for effective, cooperative leadership in a high-level staff relationship within the educational environment.

Leadership Qualities. Personnel professionals' leadership is derived mainly from their special knowledge and expertise. Their role is a staff assignment rather than a line assignment and is supportive of line administrators throughout the institution—the administrative and managerial staff. To be effective, personnel professionals must be able to gain the trust and respect of their colleagues and must be able to handle highly confidential matters with impunity. They must occasionally report on others who are breaking the law or pursuing unwise practices in their handling of personnel matters yet retain cooperative working relationships. Theirs should be leadership that enhances the total enterprise in the management and development of its work force and it must be leadership that works through and with the total management staff. At the same time, it is leadership that focuses on the personal and professional needs of all the diverse groups and individuals in the work force—leadership that is sensitive, responsive, and humanistic in orientation.

And in the final analysis, personnel professionals have to gain the support of the chief administrators and their boards. Change in

their roles may come slowly in some quarters, but it is already appearing, as is evident in California community colleges and in the San Jose Community College District. My position is a good example. It includes direction and coordination of education programs, personnel management, and affirmative action. The personnel department handles all traditional personnel functions for all regular staff, classified and certificated, plus affirmative action, collective bargaining, and access to legal counsel. The chancellor and board of trustees in the San Jose District deserve credit for their wisdom in initiating the present organization, which brings academic and personnel coordination into an integrated whole.

In conclusion, the management and development of human resources in higher education is begging for leadership. And the leadership must be first rate and of a special kind. It is leadership requiring complex and special knowledge, strong but harmonious relationships with academic administrators, and a deep and abiding humanistic philosophy that reaches out to people and their needs. If enough key leaders in higher education begin to recognize the merits of such leadership and are willing to develop the comprehensive organizational structures to support it, many institutions and all their personnel will be better served in the future.

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What seems to be evolving in the community college is a new style of administration that holds promise for leadership under collective bargaining.

Collective Bargaining—Its Impact on Maturing Administrative Thought

Karl J. Jacobs

What stage of maturity has collective bargaining reached in the community college and what have administrators learned as a result of over a decade of experience with the process? Administrators accept collective bargaining as a reality that must be reckoned with. In the early stages of collective bargaining, both boards of trustees and administrators were completely unsophisticated in their dealing with faculty. Their responses to bargaining varied from outright hostility to complete naivete. Administrators were hoping they could win faculty support away from unions by making major economic and governance concessions in their first master agreements. The result was that faculty gained even greater confidence in the use of collective power and boards discovered the concessions granted in contracts were overly generous and misguided. Disillusioned and frustrated board members either chose not to stand for election or were defeated by the voters, and administrators soon departed from the institution.

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Today, collective bargaining is no longer a mystery. Administrators on many campuses are as well or better trained than their faculty counterparts in negotiating and administering contracts. The faculty missionary zeal over union activity has been replaced by an acceptance of the process as simply a method of achieving their goals. But there is a disquieting feeling that this balance of power between employer and employee achieved through collective bargaining may not be sufficient to resolve a number of challenges facing community colleges.

Need for Campus Cooperation

Both administrators and faculty are concerned with the effects of declining enrollments in the liberal arts, restricted financial support, competition among higher education institutions for both students and programs, and greater external control over institutional decision making. However, there is little agreement on who within the institution should provide the leadership to deal with these problems. Unionized faculty are reluctant to grant top-level administrators a leadership role beyond routine administrative tasks.

American Federation of Teachers representatives Nielsen and Polishook (1979, p. 5) comment, "In many instances, administrative responses to the crisis (prospect for higher education) are inherently self-interested and diverse and have contributed only to fragmenting the academic community and creating chaos in the place of cohesion." Nielsen and Polishook do, however, recognize the necessity of arriving at an institutional rapprochement with top-level administrators by stating, "We are committed to work with every segment of the academic community in an effort to succeed in obtaining our common objectives. There is no alternative to cohesion except abject failure for everyone" (1979, p. 5).

Why Faculty Organize

Similar pleas for cooperation are voiced by trustees and administrators, but the fact remains that many community colleges are fragmented and administrators and faculty are unable to work out a mutually advantageous relationship that contributes to cohesion. The reasons are complex and involve such factors as the nature of the community college, the professional identity of the faculty, and the effects of formal collective bargaining.

To begin with, faculty were unsure of where the community college itself fit in the collegial scheme; and consequently, there was no commonly accepted definition of their role and status as professionals. The community college was, and it still remains, a segment of education seeking an ideological place in the family of higher education. The combining of transfer, vocational-technical, adult education, and, more recently, community-based programs under the egalitarian umbrella of open entry for students had a number of advantages but left unanswered for both faculty and community whether the two-year college was an extension of the common schools, a segment of higher education, or something unique.

For instance, during the decade of phenomenal institutional growth, educators disagreed about the very nature and mission of the community college itself. They argued that the two-year institution was neither a part of higher education nor an extension of the common schools but instead was a new educational invention. However, community college policies and practices were not innovative. They were adopted from both public schools and traditional higher education by boards, administrators, and faculty who reflected these backgrounds. The result was an unclear, if not contradictory, set of rules governing campus relationships that further confused the faculty's concept of professionalism; several community colleges established traditional academic rank but compensated faculty by the public school system of lane-step schedules. Therefore, one philosophy—academic rank—implied professionalism, while the other—lane-step schedules—deemphasized individual effort.

Unlike the senior institutions that had the advantage of time to develop an institutional identity and governance system community college board and staff energies were committed to creating a college. Quick decisions had to be made to educate students, which meant faculty and staff had to be hired, facilities provided, and administrative services developed. Consequently, faculty believed they were bypassed in the decision-making process, and the result was what organizational theorists describe as an "overload" on the system. In other words, there was the feeling that the "real" decisions affecting the college and faculty were arrived at through an informal process between board members and administrators.

Frustrated by what they perceived to be a sense of powerlessness and a confusion over their own professionalism, faculty were additionally burdened by a feeling of nonacceptance by their senior college colleagues. In the 1960s, the American Association of University Pro-

fessors was reluctant to accept community college faculty as full members. A standing committee on community colleges was established that further reminded two-year college faculty that their status was different than that of their senior college colleagues.

In a study of two-year colleges, Cohen and Brawer (1977, p. 109) observed that faculty remain puzzled over their status as professionals and "seem not highly concerned with their academic field . . . or able to upgrade each other's skills." In other words, community college faculty appear not to be committed to the rigors of academic research or able to develop guiding principles that will contribute to growth in their professionalism. Cohen and Brawer acknowledge that excellent teaching occurs on community college campuses but argue that, collectively, faculty are without a system of standards to define professionalism.

In their study of the reasons professors embraced unionism, Ladd and Lipset (1973, pp. 16–17) concluded that there was a "strong linkage between 'class interest' and their receptivity to union practices in higher education." The lower the professors' prestige, the more likely they viewed themselves as employees rather than professionals. They further noted, "College teaching at places of low academic standing less resembles a profession, so faculty in such positions thereby see less of a clash between their status and the norms of unionism" (1973, pp. 16–17).

Although salaries and employment conditions were important to faculty, there were other less tangible reasons they joined unions. Organizing was viewed as a cause or movement—a declaration of self-determination in their relationship with boards of trustees and administrators. Whether faculty have fully realized their goals through unionism is debatable, but there is agreement that collective bargaining has greatly altered attitudes and the ways decisions are made on campuses.

Administrative Leadership Under Collective Bargaining

Collective bargaining has legally drawn the line between employers (board and administration) and employees (faculty). Relationships between the two interests are guided by contracts and interpretation of rulings and policies. The emphasis in decision making is based on precedents and their implications for the future. The bargaining process emphasizes differences rather than agreement between legal adversaries, and this style of thinking carries over to day-to-day relationships between administrators and faculty. The psychological

environment for the consideration of the broader questions affecting the institution is limited. There is the awareness that discussion of far-reaching questions must be eventually squared with faculty self-interest.

Collective bargaining has created unique problems for administrators. They are in the precarious position of having official responsibility for faculty performance but limited authority to carry out their duties. Administrators are required by the contract to supervise faculty as "employees" and yet are expected to inspire and motivate them as "professionals."

Myron Lieberman (1979), once a strong union advocate, points out that faculty can exercise an effective veto power rather than a "do" power. Specifically, administrators need cooperation to achieve goals, and faculty can frustrate administrative efforts at leadership by simply and discreetly not cooperating. To survive in many organized colleges, administrators must steer a course between compliance with the board of trustees' expectations or goals and avoidance of antagonism of the faculty, upon whom the administrators' success ultimately depends.

The political and social climate for communication is difficult under collective bargaining. Hedgepeth (1974) in his study of the effects of collective bargaining on academic administration found that faculty-administrator relations were formal, structured, and more impersonal and that this structuring forced administrators into more confining situations where decisions were made on structure more than on potential of ideas. By the nature of their roles, administrators felt isolated and that there was inordinate emphasis on dates, schedules, and time-consuming activities.

Perhaps the most complicated aspect of faculty-administrator relations involves the ambiguity that continues to surround the faculty's self-perception of their professional identity. Faculty see no inconsistency in using collective power to achieve their goals as employees but often react to administrative actions with arguments more appropriate to traditional faculty professionals. The practice of faculty votes of no-confidence or censure of administrators seems unusual to private sector managers, but they do occur and at times are taken seriously by boards of trustees.

A Strategy for Administrators Under Collective Bargaining

What seems to be evolving in community colleges is a new style of administration that holds promise for leadership under collective

bargaining. Successful administrators share a number of leadership characteristics:

1. *Psychological adjustment to collective bargaining.* Administrators are better trained in the psychology and politics of bargaining. They accept and understand their role within the institution as academic manager. The alienation from a collegial relationship with faculty may still be personally distasteful, but it is accepted as a reality.

2. *Team approach to decision making.* The collective power of the faculty is being met with a collective response by administrators. Administrators are developing the skills of participatory decision making. There is less dependence on individual personality and personal style, thus avoiding the risk of division among administrators. A team approach lessens the administration's sense of isolation and provides reinforcement in carrying out responsibilities.

3. *A political strategy in dealing with faculty.* Cohen and March (1974, pp. 206–212) comment that administrations should be willing to overcome what they term inertia of the organization to change by carefully planning their actions. They accentuate the importance of administrative persistence, hard work, political timing, and careful preparation when selling ideas in the faculty marketplace.

It is likely that as they gain more experience with unions, administrators will become more skilled in the techniques of exercising leadership. On several unionized campuses, there seem to be two parallel relationships emerging between faculty and administrators. One is the obvious confrontation and occasional disruption of institutional life by strikes, censures, and tough rhetoric, while unobtrusively there is discussion and compromise on most matters where there is mutual self-interest. By necessity, both faculty and administrators are beginning to realize they need one another; and with time and experience, both will reach a pragmatic basis for cooperation and, with some good fortune, a measure of trust.

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Financial management and planning properly conceived and implemented will be one of the most important ingredients of a successful community college in the next decade.

Financial Planning and Management—New Strategies

William J. Mann

It is obvious to most administrators in higher education that existing financial planning and management methods will not solve the perplexing financial problems confronting most community colleges. The future will be even more difficult and new methods and strategies must be developed to meet the challenge. While the financial manager must exert leadership to develop new resources, the most important task is to ensure the effective use of available resources. If it can be clearly demonstrated to college personnel and the community that resources are being effectively utilized, the solution to the problems can be developed on a base of common understanding.

Financial Planning Uncertainties

The combination of declining enrollments, inflation, and the general loss of taxpayer confidence in government has brought new

meaning to the term "financial exigencies." Many institutions across the country are retrenching after a decade of abundance created by student growth. A facetious statement used in industry, "sustained growth is preferable to good management," applies to community colleges. The growth spiral of the last decade created conditions where practically any management approach had a reasonable degree of success. Financial managers have been able to keep budgets balanced with relative ease. This is no longer the case nor will it probably ever be again. In the future the spotlight will be on financial management because scarce resources must be channeled to priority areas and estimates will be reflected in the number of faculty, staff, and administrators who may lose their jobs. The pressure on financial managers will be intense. Some financial managers will react by attempting to manage resources through tight controls designed to centralize decision making. This will not be successful and will alienate the financial manager at a time when maximum teamwork by all educational managers will be needed.

The vitality of a community college lies in its ability to identify and respond quickly to community needs. Overcontrol can lead to a self-defeating spiral of mediocrity when maximum creativity is needed. Carefully planned new programs can develop new student credit hours needed to sustain the college. While prudent control must be exercised, a delicate balance must be maintained between academic creativity and available resources. The complex nature of financial planning and management places the financial manager in a unique position in the institutional decision-making process. Few managers have the knowledge needed to estimate or judge the college's overall financial condition; the financial manager does not have the knowledge to judge educational programs. In the future, quality decisions and planning will require excellent communication between financial and educational management. The chief executive officer must make sure this communication takes place, and the financial manager must take a positive role in communicating financial information needed for effective educational planning. The future financial manager's goal should be to educate college personnel to the level necessary to make balanced decisions. The challenge is to maintain the current operable systems and develop new approaches to maximize scarce resources through effective communication.

Financial Planning

The basic financial planning techniques are well established but the financial planning *process* needs to be developed and emphasized in

every community college. The financial plan cannot be successfully implemented unless a process of information sharing and meaningful involvement of people has taken place. The word "process" is the key. A carefully conceived plan for involvement of the college governance system is necessary. Instead of responding to pressure, the process invites participation and requires the financial manager's leadership. The process involves the whole year and begins with the establishment of annual and long-range goals. From the goals, objectives and an annual budget consistent with the objectives are developed. Prior to the development of the annual budget, the five-year financial plan should be developed. The financial plan and annual budget should be integrated and finalized at the same time after a series of alternatives have been tested.

All personnel must understand the assumptions used to project revenue and expenditures because individuals affected by reduction have the right to understand factors that directly influence their lives and careers. Personnel reductions based upon financial planning must be reasonably accurate. If unexpected surplus funds develop, institutional credibility and the financial manager's ability will be severely questioned. It is almost impossible to explain this situation satisfactorily unless there is a general understanding of the assumptions and factors supporting the original estimates. A fortuitous revenue change or a wise management decision to reduce expenditures that should strengthen the college can instead create distrust that will take years to overcome. The future of financial managers may well depend on their ability to effectively communicate the college's financial condition. The need for accurate financial accounting will continue but the need for effective financial planning will be of paramount importance.

One of the most important products of financial planning is early detection of financial problems. This early detection will provide sufficient lead time to allow educational managers the opportunity to implement orderly corrective measures. The sudden detection of problems that are the result of previous decisions made without sufficient study of their long-range impact will not be tolerated. In the past, these judgment errors have been absorbed in the growth process. Today and in the future these errors will be reflected in the immediate need to take dramatic corrective action that could have been phased in over several years. While the future is difficult to predict, today's financial exigency is the result of poor planning that should have identified alternative possibilities and allowed the college to operate somewhere between potential extremes with a reasonable margin of safety.

Financial Management

Effective financial planning coupled with a process that involves the entire college is very difficult to achieve without basic financial management systems and concepts in operation. A solid financial accounting and budgeting system that utilizes cost centers, decentralized budgeting, and accountability relationships must be in operation. Emphasis should be given to the reporting phase of this system. Too often great attention is given to the recording of transactions to meet accountability requirements. Information that is vital to the management decision process is often lost in massive computer printouts and reports designed to meet legal reporting requirements. The financial manager is well informed, but other managers are not. Financial management reports that communicate effectively to all college personnel should be developed. Simplified formats, exception reporting, and summarized data can greatly assist the educational manager to understand financial statements. The goal should be to provide timely financial information on a regular schedule that fully communicates the financial condition of the college to all personnel. This total disclosure approach will provide the necessary feedback necessary to evaluate and improve the financial planning process.

Comprehensive historical information for at least the last five years is needed. It is very difficult to judge financial information unless it is set in at least a five-year time frame. This kind of format is particularly useful when working with various college groups. Properly organized and carefully selected, this information will provide the foundation for predicting the future.

Comparative financial information should be provided to test the reasonableness of current operations in relationship to comparable colleges. While good reasons may exist for major differences, the benefit lies in the analysis process, which may disclose valuable related information.

Since the majority of expenditures are invested in human resources, a reporting system that discloses faculty, staff, and administrative work loads is needed. Other reports that focus on the application of personnel dollars based upon standards will effectively support the planning process and the evaluation of current operations.

The financial manager should provide cost benefit analysis for the college as a regular service. This analysis should always include at least a five-year projection and an evaluation plan.

The annual budget process has been well developed in most colleges but its value is limited unless it is evaluated in terms of it being an intermediate step between the past five years and the next five years. Because the annual budget requires so much attention, the financial planning component has often been slighted. From a practical standpoint, the next year's budget is already committed in large part and the real opportunity for new directions lies in the planning and analysis of the next two- to five-year time period. Assuming all personnel are involved in developing the detailed annual budget, a good case can be made for the simultaneous development of a summary version of the financial plan for the next five years by cost center managers.

It is very important to develop the annual budget as the first year of the five-year financial plan. The input of the detailed annual budget provides the base data to evaluate the impact of current decisions on the long-range operation of the college. The development of a budget and financial planning manual as well as procedure manuals covering all operations will enhance general operations and improve understanding of the budget and long-range financial planning process.

Advanced concepts like planning, programming, budgeting systems (PPBS) or zero base budgeting are excellent theoretical models but should be studied and scaled down to meet the needs of a given college. The planning model presented in this chapter is a practical application of PPBS.

The annual budget document has typically been a compilation of numbers that is not intended to communicate to a wide audience. A comprehensive annual program budget designed to communicate the college's mission, goals, and financial information as a total concept should be developed. While many possibilities exist, the following sections could be included to enable the reader to gain an overall concept of the operation of the college.

1. *Letter of Transmittal.* This section would communicate the major features of the annual budget to the board of trustees and community.
2. *Historical Basis.* This section would communicate a brief history of the college.
3. *Legal Basis.* This section would communicate the various legal requirements necessary to the operation of the budget. It would include the role of the board of trustees and any state or local requirements related to college operation.

4. *Instructional Program.* This section would communicate the educational philosophy, objectives, and services offered by the college. It would be very general and should be developed by the educational area.
5. *Financial Program.* This section would communicate the financial operation of the college in summary to facilitate the understanding of the budget. In addition, enrollment, cost information, and historical statistics would be included to provide information in support of the budget and to provide a comprehensive financial picture of the colleges. Charts and graphs should be used to communicate effectively.
6. *Financial Plan.* This section would communicate the long-range financial plan in summary in order to place the annual budget in perspective. Five years of history, the current budget, five years of projected revenue and expenditures would place the current budget in a ten-year continuum.
7. *Annual Budget.* This section would communicate the annual budget in summary and in detail by cost center. Each cost center should show a brief description of personnel and services and annual objectives expected to be accomplished during the year with the resources provided.
8. *Budget Terms Defined.* This section would communicate the definition of terms used in the program budget.

Financial Planning Model

The presentation of the annual budget to the board of trustees usually has general institutional support because of the immediate needs it satisfies. The presentation of the financial plan often does not have general support because the plan is developed by high-level administrators and appears to have little impact on current operations. A simple method is needed to communicate the basic elements of the financial plan in order to gain consensus within the college for the plan. One method to accomplish this task is to develop a series of revenue and expenditure assumptions. This approach can be very effective if the annual budget is developed as an integral part of the five-year financial plan. Using this approach, the financial plan and related assumptions will establish the maximum amount that can be allocated to the annual budget. Proposals for the annual budget can be tested in terms of reasonableness over the five-year planning period. Agreement and adoption of the financial plan should coincide with the finalization

of the annual budget. Basically, the decision process revolves around the maintenance of a reasonable fund balance over a period of years. A current budget proposal that appears reasonable on the surface may be quite unreasonable based upon the college's ability to support the proposal in future years. With methods to determine long-term financial success, current goals can be reviewed and alternative approaches that will coincide with the college's financial resources can be considered. This approach will allow the college lead time to adjust to circumstances before a financial crisis is created with the related negative impact on the overall operations of the college.

A financial planning model with no more than ten key revenue and ten expenditure assumptions should be developed. The assumptions that form the foundation for all projections are the heart of the planning system. An effective plan utilizes the natural flow of historical data into future projections. With this method, a financial foundation is provided that can be used to test the reasonableness of the assumptions and related projections. Twenty key variables are usually sufficient for planning purposes and can be effectively managed working with diverse groups. For example, the state aid variable could be formulated with five years of history and a projection for five years, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Historical and Projected State Aid

Basis	*Year*	*Credit Hour Rate*	*Percent of Change*	*Annual Revenue*	*Increase/ (Decrease)*
Actual	1974-75	16.69		4,356,470	
Actual	1975-76	14.32	(14.20)	4,716,834	360,364
Actual	1976-77	22.26	55.45	6,298,457	1,581,623
Actual	1977-78	23.00	3.32	5,266,991	(1,031,466)
Estimated	1978-79	28.15	22.39	5,658,150	391,159
Budgeted	1979-80	30.50	8.35	5,795,000	136,850
Projected	1980-81	31.00	1.64	6,066,700	271,700
Assumption	1981-82	31.50	1.61	6,349,487	282,787
$ .50/cr hr	1982-83	32.00	1.59	6,643,780	294,293
	1983-84	32.50	1.56	6,950,017	306,237

Staffing

The instructional staffing formula set forth in the college master plan stipulates that the average load for an instructor will be 725 student credit hours per contract year and will remain in effect throughout

the planning period. Funds will be provided to teach 69 percent of the credit hours with full-time faculty during the 1978–79 fiscal year. This percentage will be reduced each year until it stablizes at 55 percent in 1982–83 (see Table 2).

Once all assumptions are agreed upon, a chart showing five years of history and five years of projection is created. By adding the current fund balance and revenue and then subtracting expenditures, the ending fund balance for the current and future years is calculated. The focus of planning becomes the adequacy of the ending fund balance. The adequacy of the ending fund balance in order to sustain cash flow, control expenditures, and provide a reasonable margin of safety is one of the key assumptions in the model. Since this assumption is the key to the financial viability of the college, the board of trustees may declare this a given assumption.

This approach to financial planning allows discussion and speculation about the future in terms of the past five years and the current financial operation of the college. It avoids great detail and focuses on key variables in order to communicate the college's long-term financial condition. This format allows the testing of alternative assumptions using participative planning and the development of as many possible financial plans as necessary.

This model can be used effectively with the board of trustees and selected groups within the college governance system. The financial manager would present the administration's recommended plan

Table 2. Historical and Projected Full-Time Staffing Allocation

Basis	*Year*	*Allocated Teaching Faculty*	*F-T Faculty Percent*	*Full-Time Faculty Increase/ (Decrease)*
Actual	1974–75	229	58.72	
Actual	1975–76	230	49.77	1
Actual	1976–77	234	59.96	4
Estimated	1977–78	224	70.00	(10)
Budgeted	1978–79	219	68.44	(5)
Projected	1979–80	196	59.47	(23)
Assumption	1980–81	196	57.73	(0)
	1981–82	196	56.05	0
	1982–83	198	54.98	2

using an overhead projector. Alternative assumptions can be identified through discussion and general agreement to test proposed assumptions.

The goal is to select through consensus the five-year plan that best meets the needs of the college. At the end of the planning period, the administration will present a recommendation and the board of trustees will adopt the financial plan. While the various plans can be calculated by hand, a relatively simple computer program can be written to develop plans quickly by changing variables as needed. An on-line computer program can be developed to test assumptions immediately during a given financial planning meeting to avoid delays in computer processing of various plans.

This process is basic and necessary to develop a financial plan; however, the selection of assumptions is usually done by a few top-level administrators. This model assumes a group will arrive at approximately the same conclusions if presented the opportunity and if provided data they can relate to. The strength of the model lies in the shar-

Table 3. Summaries of Revenue and Expenditure Assumptions

Factor	*Planning Period*	*Assumption*
	Revenue Assumptions	
Enrollment	1978-83	3% increase
Tax Base	1978-83	3% increase per year
Tax Rate	1978-83	20¢/$100 constant
Collection Rate	1978-83	92% constant
State Aid	1978-83	50¢ increase per year
Student Fees	1978-83	$1.00 increase per credit hour in 1979
Federal and Vocational Revenue	1978-83	3% per year
Investment, Grant Overhead, and Other Revenue	1978-83	No increase
	Expenditure Assumptions	
Administrative Center Cost	1978-83	10% of total
Districtwide Cost	1978-83	4% of total
Staffing Guidelines	1978-83	725 student credit hours and 55/45 FT to PT
Salary Expenditures	1978-83	7% per year increase
Part-Time Salary Expenditures	1978-83	From $250 to $290/cr hr
Other Expenditures	1978-83	5% per year increase
Facility Fund	1978-83	$150,000 per year to $350,000 per year

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ing of information about future assumptions that are very difficult to select with certainity. Once the complexity of the problem is generally understood and support for the plan is obtained, future deviations from assumptions are easily communicated. The model can be kept current by revising annually or any time an assumption changes by plus or minus 5 percent. While the priorities establishment and expenditure reductions will always be controversial, the limits established in the financial plan are reasonably clear. Using the summary of detailed revenue and expenditure assumptions in Table 3 as a base, Table 4 presents an example of one financial plan. As financial planning becomes increasingly difficult, this model could become one of the financial manager's best methods to ensure long-term financial stability.

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Consumers of student development and college services will demand changes in delivery models and staffing patterns in the 1980s.

Consumer-Oriented Student Development and College Services

Ernest R. Leach

It may be more than coincidental that the emphasis upon consumerism in higher education has emerged at a time when prospective students find themselves in a buyers' market. During the expansion era of the 1960s and early 1970s, little public attention was directed toward the quality of information given to prospective students or the quality of services for those students as they arrived on campus. The revolving door of higher education did not concern administrators since there were other students waiting in line to fill the empty spaces.

Today that tide has turned; and in the decade ahead, colleges must face the double dilemma of declining enrollments and shrinking fiscal resources. In the scramble for students as the supply diminishes, institutions will be forced to give greater attention to consumers' needs if they are to remain competitive.

For community colleges, which traditionally have made significant commitments of resources to student development and college ser-

vices, this emerging consumer emphasis will require close examination of the changing educational environment and student enrollment patterns. Assessment of consumer needs will demand changes in delivery models for services and in staffing patterns.

Unfortunately, much of the discussion about consumerism has been focused on compliance with federal regulations that primarily address the types of information prepared for student consumers. In a larger sense, however, the community and the entire college are consumers of those services traditionally described as student services or student development services. Therefore, the title and content of this chapter address student development and college services within the context of a consumer orientation.

Changing Environment

Projections for the future of higher education suggest that many of the traditional relationships between colleges and their consumers may change dramatically. The following examples of changing environmental forces will require new institutional response systems.

There will be an increasing emphasis on *lifelong learning.* The combined impact of increasing affluence, more leisure time, and occupational obsolescence resulting from new technologies supports this prediction. By 1985, five thousand new occupations, currently not recognized, will be created; and within ten years, one in three workers will be employed at jobs that do not exist today (Lahti, 1977). A study in the state of Illinois, which reported that one out of every three adults had taken some kind of course in the past two years, confirms the impact of lifelong learning (Magarrell, 1978).

Equality of opportunity is not only a major concern in our society but one of the basic premises underlying the "open door" concept of the community college. Bowen (1977, p. 90) observes, "Virtually every group that has endured inferiority of social position is now pressing for equality—workers, farmers, racial and ethnic groups, women, the poor, the handicapped, teenagers, the elderly, homosexuals, drug users, convicts and many others."

Governmental intervention in educational institution management appears to be on the increase. A long list of legislative and regulatory programs, including student consumer information requirements, affirmative action, Title IX, minimum standards of progress, and the handicapped acts, are requiring changes in resource allocations, institutional services, instructional practices, and facilities construction.

The shrinking public *fiscal support* for higher education is making it more difficult for colleges to respond to demands for service. In the wake of Proposition 13 in California, severe cuts were made in counseling services, student activities, women's programs, and clerical support (Wotruba, 1979). Twenty-two colleges reported budget cuts in student personnel programs ranging from 15 to 50 percent. With inflation escalating educational costs, more of the financial burden is being transferred to student consumers.

Changing patterns of *institutional governance* have given students a greater voice in college management. Student membership on committees, senates, and boards of trustees are evidence of the formal recognition of student concerns. The advent of collective bargaining in higher education has polarized internal relationships within colleges and impeded the potential for responsiveness to changing consumer demands. Borland (1979) observes that collective bargaining may raise significant questions for student affairs personnel regarding their roles within the institution. He asks if they are management, labor, or student advocates and responds that their involvement in a bargaining unit may determine how that question is answered.

Changing Enrollment Patterns

Concurrent with the changing environment, there has been a dramatic change in the enrollment patterns of student consumers. From a fiscal perspective, the stabilization of or projected *decline in student enrollments* will have a dramatic effect upon the financial health of many community colleges. The combined impact of a decreasing birthrate and population migration will threaten seriously those northern institutions that primarily depend upon recent high school graduates for their enrollment.

In Fall semester 1976 national enrollments in two-year colleges fell below those of the previous year and the net increase from 1977 to 1978 represents a growth of only 0.1 percent (Magarrell, 1979). If enrollment data from four-year colleges and universities is considered together with that of two-year colleges, there are approximately sixty thousand fewer students enrolled in 1978 than in 1977. Magarrell also noted that enough students to fill about sixty small liberal arts colleges had disappeared from American campuses within one year's time. Other journalists are describing this phenomenon with headlines such as, "More Space Than Students," "Campus Scramble for Bodies," and "Private Colleges Cry 'Help'!" Public school enrollments indicate there

will be a loss of approximately 25 percent in the traditional eighteen to twenty-two year age group by 1992.

Although the declining birthrate will result in fewer high school graduates during the next few years, the population bulge will be lodged in the "midlife crisis" age. Sonnenfeld (1978) reports that as a consequence of the forty-three million babies born in the years immediately following World War II, the thirty-five- to forty-five-year-old age group will increase eventually by 80 percent. These adults will represent an increasingly important pool of prospective student consumers.

In addition to the decline in overall enrollment, there has been a significant *change in the demographics* of the student consumers seeking higher education. These "new students," described by Cross (1971), include larger numbers of those who are older, minority, female, and financially and educationally disadvantaged. Moreover, the traditional concept of a full-time student who completes a community college education in two years is little more than a memory of the "good old days." Nearly two-thirds of most community college students are enrolled on a part-time basis. Many "stop in" and "stop out" as they juggle their college classes with competing demands for their time and money.

Changing *student interests* are creating a significant impact on the distribution of college resources. The waning interest in languages, geography, and philosophy and the burgeoning demand for business studies are forcing institutions to reallocate resources. The choice of many students who work full-time to attend evening classes has resulted in evening enrollments nearly as large as those during daytime hours. These students are interested not only in courses but also in a full range of services equivalent to those enjoyed by traditional day students.

Finally, geographic proximity appears to be an important consideration affecting enrollments of part-time, commuter students. Busy adults may be willing to attend classes in a facility in their local neighborhoods but will not drive to a more distant campus location. These students, too, are asking for a full range of college services commensurate with those available on the home campus. Institutions able to respond to the service needs of these new student consumers will have a much higher probability of remaining healthy during the years of challenge that lie ahead.

Changing Delivery Models

Changes in the educational environment and student enrollment patterns suggest the need for changes in delivery models if ser-

vices are to be responsive to consumer needs. Most of the student development services delivery models in recent years have focused primarily on students' developmental needs and the changing roles of professionals in meeting them. Examples include the Tomorrow's Higher Education (T.H.E.) Model, developed by the American College Personnel Association; "Student Development Services in Postsecondary Education," prepared by the Commission on Professional Development of the Council of Student Personnel Associations in Higher Education; and the report to the Commission on Academic Affairs of the American Council on Education, entitled "Student Personnel Services in Higher Education."

Any discussion of responsive delivery models must begin with the question, "Whose needs are to be met?" As reflected in the title of this chapter, services must be responsive to more than just student consumers. If service goals are to be rooted in educational and political realities, it will be important to consider the needs of the service community, students, and staff and the maintenance needs of the institution.

Community Needs. Population demographics, public school enrollments, and economic forecasts yield valuable indicators of community consumer needs. Community needs assessment instruments such as the IMPACT model developed by National Center for Higher Education Management Systems (NCHEMS) personnel at Boulder, Colorado, provide a systematic process for soliciting perceived needs from all segments of the service area.

Given the changing environment and the changing enrollment patterns, it will be necessary to develop service models that anticipate changing community needs. The emergence of a large number of persons facing midlife crises and career changes suggests the potential need for fee-based career planning and assessment services that may be unrelated to traditional instructional offerings.

Student Needs. Student consumers are often best able to articulate their own needs. A simple questionnaire administered as part of the registration process can yield valuable data for planning both student development and college services. Some of the national entrance and placement tests, such as the Comparative Guidance and Placement Program (CGP), developed by the Educational Testing Service, include options for local questions for students' self-reported needs. More sophisticated needs assessment instruments, such as the Freshman Questionnaire developed by Astin at UCLA and the College Student Questionnaire (CSQ) developed by the Educational Testing Ser-

vice, have been designed to gather data on students' attitudes and needs.

The return of older students to the college community suggests the need for educational assessment of life experiences that may be relevant to educational objectives and the need for cocurricular programming for families and adults. Nontraditional time frames, including early bird classes and weekend programs, will have serious delivery implications for admissions, testing and registration services, counseling, health services, career planning, and cocurricular programs.

Geographic decentralization will present unique problems for delivery of comprehensive services to students in off-campus centers. Moreover, the challenge to deliver services to small populations of students will require use of more sophisticated technology to support student information and registration systems, self-accessing instructional and service labs offering assistance with study skills, college administrative procedures, self-assessment, and career exploration.

Staff Needs. A college is a labor-intensive enterprise and its personnel is its most important resource. As we move into a steady state or declining cycle in enrollments, there will be few opportunities to hire new staff members and thereby bring new ideas into the organization. Student development and service personnel should use their process skills in sponsoring staff development programs for faculty, administrators, and support staff to assist them in acquiring new competencies and skills and facilitate their personal growth.

In a consumer-oriented college, it is important that all members of the college community have a sensitivity to the needs of student and staff consumers and that there be an opportunity to acquire the skills to respond as these needs change. O'Banion (1972, p. 78) has argued that, "Improved personal development leads to improved program development."

Institutional Needs. The institution as a corporate body is a consumer of maintenance services that are needed to sustain the organization. Personnel within student development and college services must actively contribute to these institutional service needs if programs are to continue to enjoy broad-based political support. In addition to problems identified through monthly and annual reports, there are standardized instruments for assessing institutional climate and needs. The following are examples of available instruments: College and University Environment Scale (CUES), developed by the Educational Testing Service; College Characteristics Inventory (CCI), developed

by Pace at UCLA; and Institutional Functioning Inventory (IFI) and Institutional Goals Inventory (IGI), developed by the Educational Testing Service.

An institution faced with enrollment decline may be particularly receptive to student development and college services that contribute to a collegewide marketing plan. Prince George's Community College implemented such a plan and it resulted in an enrollment increase of 15 percent in one year (Leach, 1977). Unless services are perceived by the college community as being essential to the health of the organization, they may suffer severe cutbacks in times of financial emergency.

Changing Staffing Patterns

The changing delivery models previously suggested will require corresponding changes in traditional staffing patterns. Historically, recommendations for staffing student development functions have been based on ratios of staff to student headcount or full-time equivalent enrollment. One of these earlier models was developed under the "Project for Appraisal and Development of Junior College Student Personnel Programs" (Collins, 1967). More recently, the Washington State Student Services Commission (1977) has developed staffing ratios for student services based on hard service data collected during the previous two years. Although staffing ratios may provide general guidelines, it is highly probably that future staffing will depend upon demonstrated service needs supported by appropriate evaluation research. Rather than comment upon the appropriateness of staffing levels, the following discussion will focus upon changing staffing patterns.

Differential Levels. An analysis of community and college needs suggest the appropriateness of differential levels of staffing for delivery of specific services. For example, student assessment services may require the expertise of a professional counselor. Information dissemination and course selection services may be efficiently delivered by using paraprofessional educational advisors. The actual registration process may be staffed with clerical personnel and student assistants. Fiscal constraints in the years ahead will require efficient use of high-cost staff and will encourage more use of paraprofessionals and student assistants.

Nontraditional Schedules. The peak work loads that cluster around the beginning and ending of academic terms may require non-

traditional vacation schedules. For example, a ten-month counselor may have vacation during February and March but instructional staff will be away during the summer months. Some institutions are now considering semester or quarter contracts for service personnel, as they have contracted previously with instructional personnel. The growing number of evening students has forced a reallocation of staff time between day and evening hours.

Nontraditional Staff. Another emerging phenomenon is the use of part-time staff for nontraditional hours and delivery of services at decentralized locations. Appointment hours can be varied to respond to peak work load demands. In addition, joint planning between departments may result in sharing part-time staff as work loads shift from one service area to another. As consumer needs change, institutions are emphasizing selection of staff with expertise in more than one service area and the use of both student and senior citizen volunteers for delivery of service functions.

Changing Demands for Accountability

Both the professional and popular literature today abound with pleas for accountability in education, and personnel in student development and college services are being asked more than ever before to substantiate the legitimacy of their functions in the educational process.

Traditional responses to these demands for accountability too often have been ineffective with colleagues, unintelligible to the external community, and damaging to the mental health of service personnel. Staff have been defensive and too often asserted that it is impossible to measure what they do; therefore the college must accept on faith the importance of their functions and their requests for a significant portion of the college's resources. One need not have a crystal ball to predict that as the dollar continues to shrink, that faith may be badly shaken.

The lack of sophisticated measurement techniques for assessing student learning, particularly in the affective areas, has caused many professionals to retreat into a mystical world of jargon and misunderstood rituals practiced behind closed doors. If student development and college services personnel are to continue to compete successfully for increasingly limited funds, it is imperative that they come out of the closet and demonstrate to the entire college community the impact of their services on the achievement of college objectives.

As noted earlier, in the next decade community colleges will face serious fiscal problems resulting from the double-edged sword of declining enrollments and tax limitations. Both problems, however, may be symptomatic of a lack of institutional responsiveness to consumer needs.

As college enrollments begin to stabilize or decline, it is easy to become entrapped in a negative mentality that focuses on reduction in force policies, budget deficits, and program reductions. A recent study in the state of California (Wotruba, 1979) reveals that student development and college services may be extremely vulnerable as the reduction in force (RIF) axe begins to fall.

There has long existed a myth that these services are non- revenue-producing functions and therefore expendable in the face of budgetary crises. However, if accountability measures can be developed that link these services directly with increases in student enrollment or retention, it may be possible to demonstrate that, in fact, these are the most important revenue producing functions within the institution. Instructional faculty will produce very little revenue if there are no students to teach.

Programs and personnel are constantly being evaluated by other members of the college community. The challenge to service personnel is to develop systems of accountability that move evaluation out of the threatening environment of "kaffee klatsch" whispers to a reasoned process that is consistent with human development goals. The evaluation dilemma faced by student development and college services administrators is not whether to evaluate but how.

Program Evaluation. Program evaluation should include both measures of activity and measures of impact to assess the effectiveness of student development and college services in meeting college and community needs. For example, if faculty believe counselors are spending most of their time assisting students with personal or social problems when, in fact, approximately 60 percent of the department's resources are invested in the advising process, it is not surprising to find ambiguity about the counselor's role in the college.

A written monthly report shared with the president, the deans, and constituency representatives allows for monitoring *staff activities* against program plans and informs the college community about those activities. The compilation of monthly reports into an annual report provides a year-end assessment that may be used to modify functional goals for the coming year.

While program input measures are useful tools for planning and staffing, real accountability for student development and college ser-

vices will require output measures of *impact* on community and college consumers. At a minimum, evaluation procedures should include measures of satisfaction with college services from both currently and previously enrolled students. In addition, satisfaction indexes from faculty and other direct recipients of service may be valuable indicators for measuring program impacts.

Several models are being developed to provide more sophisticated output measures of the effectiveness of student development and college services. Particular attention is called to Technical Report No. 40 (Micek and Wallhaus, 1973), developed by the National Center for Higher Education Management Systems at Boulder, Colorado. This report includes examples of outcome variables and potential measures of those variables.

A similar plan to state outcome measures was developed by the Florida Community/Junior College Inter Institutional Research Council for use in the twenty-six Florida Community/Junior Colleges. This model provided for assessment of student personnel services objectives, assessment of outputs for student personnel services, and a guide for cost analyses for student personnel services strategies. Similarly, a committee of the chief student affairs administrators for the State University of New York (Correnti and others, 1979) has developed guidelines for student affairs planning and evaluation.

Some services are more amenable to outcome measures than others. At Prince George's Community College, follow-up statistics have been maintained on promotion strategies initiated by the admissions office as a part of the collegewide marketing effort. It was possible to demonstrate that a brochure mailed to all homes in the county generated telephone calls during a three-week period from 1,290 persons, of whom 122 registered in the next evening class. Information centers in county shopping malls, staffed Friday nights and all day Saturdays for fourteen weekends, resulted in over 2,000 prospective student contacts. Of these, 1,336 completed postcards requesting additional information and 110 registered for the next semester. Teams of counselors, faculty, and admissions personnel contacted 145 prospective students at four county libraries and 50 of them registered for the next semester (Leach, 1978).

Cocurricular programming at Prince George's Community College is based on the stated preferences of students collected as a part of the registration process each semester. At each event, student identification numbers are collected for all persons attending. These numbers are entered into the student information system and a demographic report of attendees is prepared and shared with the program planners

for each event. This comparison of actual participants against intended participants provides the kind of outcome accountability measure that can influence future program planning.

Program evaluation should be an integral part of the planning process. Oetting (1976) suggests the primary goal of evaluation is to provide information that leads to program change. Outcomes are critical data for modifying goals and objectives for the next planning cycle. Evaluation yields an index of congruity between the actual and the intended use of resources and provides a measure of the impact of services on consumers.

Personnel Evaluation. Many systematic approaches to evaluation of personnel, although cloaked with the respectability of sophisticated sampling procedures and objective rating scales, have a dehumanizing effect on those being evaluated. So long as the real or perceived purpose of the evaluation process is to identify failure, it will produce dysfunctional consequences. Variations of the following behavior patterns may occur:

1. Intense competition may advance one person at the expense of another to the disadvantage of the total organization.
2. Token compliance with the system may result in the establishment of mediocre and easily obtainable objectives.
3. Vindictive attacks may be launched to "get" an unpopular colleague or superior.
4. Personal survival concerns may encourage inflated ratings of colleagues rather than honest judgments.
5. A high level of anxiety may distort and interfere with human interaction within the organization.

If, by contrast, the evaluation process is perceived as a shared human and professional commitment to help each staff member reach his or her maximum potential and as a strategy for ensuring the delivery of responsive human services, evaluation can be a very positive tool for assessing achievement toward previously established service objectives.

There is considerable variability in personnel evaluation processes, ranging from the periodic summons to appear before a screaming superior to the very tidy paper and pencil processes that fill file cabinets but have little impact upon people or educational programs. Regardless of the evaluation system used, good evaluation processes should be based on previously agreed upon objectives, should allow for periodic assessment, should include diagnosis and prescription for growth, should allow sufficient time for improvement, and should result in a positive growth-oriented experience for the person being evaluated.

Formal evaluation conferences should be scheduled with each staff member to recognize achievement of objectives, to identify areas for future growth, including acquisition of new competencies and professional skills, and to assess the quality of interactions with other staff members.

Harpel (1976) suggests a word of caution about the potential danger of accountability procedures developing into the "tail that wags the dog." If the perceived payoff for accountability processes is not sufficient to justify the investment of staff resources, accountability programs either will be abandoned or given token compliance.

Conclusion

Student development and college services have been discussed in the context of a consumer orientation. Consumers have been defined not only as students but also as members of the community, the faculty, the administration, and the support staff.

Truly responsive services must be planned with an awareness of the changing educational environment as well as changing patterns of student enrollment. These changes will demand changing delivery models that respond to unique subpopulations of students, nontraditional time frames for learning, and multiple geographical locations that must be supported by more sophisticated information systems and technology. Responsive delivery models for services will require changing staffing patterns, including differing levels of preparation, variable work hours, contracts based upon peak work loads rather than academic calendars, and selection of staff with skills in more than one area of expertise.

Accountability is no longer a faddish catchword but rather a prerequisite for survival of student development and college services in a time of shrinking fiscal resources. To respond to this challenge, it is imperative that planning and evaluation processes be developed which assure achievement of institutional objectives and also respond to the unique needs of community, student, faculty, and staff consumers.

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Managing Nonprofit Marketing

Dennis L. Johnson

The terms *managing* and *marketing* are neither new nor foreign to community college managers. The term *manager* may not be welcome at some community colleges. However, Drucker (1974, pp. 298-299) improves on the traditional definition of a manager as "a person responsible for the work of other people" when he states, "A manager has two specific tasks. The first is creation of a true whole that is larger than the sum of its parts, a productive entity that turns out more than the sum of the resources put into it. The second specific task of the manager is to harmonize in every decision and action the requirements of immediate and long-range future. He cannot sacrifice either without endangering the enterprise." The contemporary community college leader manages self, others, programs, and institutions.

Since their inception, community college leaders have been receptive to innovative management methods; and though not fully aware of the nonprofit marketing philosophy, they have attempted to be "market centered." Following the traditional four "P"s of corporate marketing, community colleges have been sympathetic to product,

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price, place, and promotion. Their "product" line focused on needs not being met at traditional institutions. Career, vocational, and technical programs plus an open-door admissions policy underlined a commitment to providing a product the public wanted and needed. The "price" to the student consumer has been either free or relatively inexpensive. "Place" included on- and off-campus sites with schedules established at the convenience of the student, near his or her home, or at places of employment. "Promotion" included community and area public relations, direct mail, opinion surveys, advertising, and the general use of promotional materials and efforts to inform the public about educational opportunities.

Community college expansion and growth began in the early 1960s, and four-year colleges and universities viewed these emerging institutions as a method of serving the "have nots" and the "yet-to-be-served" markets. Educational planners ignored or did not foresee the drastic changes that were coming. The inflation economy, population shifts, and fewer traditional college-age students emerged at nearly the same time. These unexpected social shifts required all postsecondary institutions to reexamine the student supply/demand factors. The reduction in the number of traditional college-age students sent a tremor through the college marketplace, even at the "confident and comfortable" community colleges.

Many traditional institutions were overbuilt, overemployed, and overextended. Though facing a predicted decline in the number of eighteen-year-olds, their choices were limited. They could become more selective and reduce enrollments, cut back on faculty and staff, or seek new markets. An all-out campaign to attract students began. The less well qualified student, career and vocational students, and the lifelong learner were identified as potential markets. These nontraditional students, long considered the turf of the community college, were sought by four-year institutions. Community colleges had experienced significant growth in the number of full-time students (usually the base for funding) and head count and then confronted "market competition." Four-year institutions began to expand their extension centers, lowered admissions standards, and began the search for "new students." Fixed costs, added to the increasing expense of serving the nontraditional student, made those handling budgets masters of fiscal finesse. "How do we do more with less?" and "How can we maintain our enrollment and tax base?" became often asked questions. Since a large portion of the community college budget is dependent on credit hours generated, any

loss in enrollment means a reduction in revenue. These are the questions that the nonprofit marketing concept has the potential to answer. The community college manager must consider new options if the college is to survive.

What Marketing Is and Is Not

To understand nonprofit marketing, the community college manager must put aside preconceived ideas, perceptions, or beliefs. The first and most critical step is to read Kotler's *Marketing for Nonprofit Organizations* (1975), which outlines the art and science of nonprofit marketing so those without business or marketing backgrounds can understand the process. While the process may be understood by the chief executive, it is wise to assume the following:

1. Most administrators, faculty, and staff will have a definition of nonprofit marketing quite different from that explained by Kotler.
2. Some members of the college community will oppose the concept, even though they choose not to read the book or learn about nonprofit marketing.
3. Some will see nonprofit marketing as "selling" or a pressure-related technique that mirrors the abuses seen in the corporate world, which, of course, would be unacceptable in postsecondary education.
4. In the beginning stages, a small number of innovative administrators, faculty, and staff will examine nonprofit marketing and realize its potential to help the community college and all institutions in postsecondary education. These key individuals can serve as change agents, with the support of executive level administrators. The total marketing concept (TMC) can be introduced to a campus. TMC is a service- and student-centered planning tool. It brings the total effort of the college into meaningful focus and helps the institution meet its mission.

While there may be objections, overcoming them is the challenge for the community college manager. A difficult task, but one well worth the effort when considering the alternatives.

Defining Nonprofit Marketing

The manager responsible for introducing nonprofit marketing may initially have concerns about using the term "marketing." However, administrators, staff, and faculty are aware that enrollments are

threatened, fiscal support is in question, and costs and inflation are increasing each year. The term *marketing* should not be a roadblock for the creative manager. If the community college manager is to lead, he or she must accept the fact that a teaching role is the best method to reach those who will be affected by nonprofit marketing—and this includes nearly everyone at the college.

It must become clear to all segments of the college that marketing the college in the 1980s will be different than it was in the 1960s and 1970s. Early in the planning stage, the marketing definition coined by Kotler (1975, p. 5) should be explained and understood: "Marketing is the analysis, planning, implementation, and control of carefully formulated programs designed to bring about voluntary exchanges of values with target markets for the purpose of achieving organizational objectives. It relies heavily on designing the organization's offering in terms of the target markets' needs and desires, and on using effective pricing, communication, and distribution to inform, motivate, and service the markets." Even the most critical faculty or staff opponent would have difficulty not agreeing with Kotler's definition, which supports the effective delivery of the college's stated mission. Nonprofit marketing must be personalized for real acceptance; and each professor, staff person, or administrator must understand that the student consumer, tax-paying voter, and other significant publics are central to his or her role and discipline. Nonprofit marketing can be seen as threatening by those who prefer casual or no accountability and a system without corporate or personal goals. The "growth without accountability" days are past and probably will not return to community colleges or any segment of postsecondary education.

Overcoming Opposition and Gaining Support

Identifying the real and perceived opposition to necessary change is an important first step for any manager. One way to minimize acceptance problems is to eliminate misconceptions through training, education, and Kotler's book; through case studies of success at other community colleges; and through demonstrating what can be done on your campus through nonprofit marketing. Nonprofit marketing must be understood and accepted at the executive and governing board level if it is to be implemented. The enthusiastic support of these executive offices is a commitment that encourages acceptance at all

levels. The development of a marketing "task force" is one way administrators might consider as they search for a method to bring the nonprofit marketing concept to the campus.

Marketing Task Force

The institutional marketing process requires top-down and bottom-up involvement. It should not be mandated because it will probably receive little cooperation, be openly opposed, or fail. Establishing a marketing task force requires careful thought and planning if it is to succeed. A combination of persons, including governing board members, president, faculty, staff, and line administration, is essential for both representation and success. This group should be action oriented and include task- and objectives-centered personnel. Goals and measurable results, combined with people possessing a missionary spirit, best describes the composition and function. The mission of the task force is to "educate the educator" as to nonprofit marketing's role in shaping the future direction of the institution. It is *not* a promotion arm of the college comprised just of admissions, public relations, development, or community relations personnel. The task force must deal with internal evaluation and change and measure external needs by completing regular assessments and by identifying new service opportunities. A successful task force works across normal line and staff relationships, seeking objective and measurable answers; and it welcomes adversity, disagreement, and problem identification as elements in the change process.

Kotler (1979, p. 41) suggests the objectives of a marketing committee or task force are "(1) to identify the marketing problems and opportunities facing the institution; (2) to identify the major needs of various administrative units for marketing services; and (3) to explore the institution's possible need for a full-time director of marketing."

The task force should meet often, perhaps weekly at the onset, and incorporate an agenda and detailed reports in its planning and operating structure. Two important objectives include open and regular communication with all the college community and the early creation of a success model. An underenrolled department that researched its past and present strengths and weaknesses and future needs developed a plan and then implemented the plan would be ideal. Faculty will emulate as they witness and understand nonprofit marketing,

especially if numbers are increased or decline is neutralized. Improved teaching results as an awareness of faculty responsibility for retention and enrollment increases.

Faculty Involvement

Faculty members are too often labeled as "they will not cooperate or assist" people rather than as individuals with great concern for their department, discipline, or job. They can lead, and be led, when motivation and direction are present. The catalyst for action can be the task force and marketing-oriented managers. Casey Fast, chairman of the mathematics department at Lane Community College in Eugene, Oregon, has applied nonprofit marketing principles to a previously underenrolled department. At a recent League for Innovation meeting, Fast stated, "At Lane, much of our success is due to the freedom of support for the faculty and staff in the development of a good classroom product. The president encourages innovation and new ideas. In the past four years, the mathematics department F.T.E. and headcount have increased, in spite of college and statewide declines."

Faculty members are, and can be, responsive. TMC offers a way to free faculty genius, creativity, and energy. Moving from a "we versus they" mentality, though difficult, is not impossible. There may be differences; but as is true in most situations, concerns for the institution can overcome perceived and real obstacles. Institutional leadership and the task force can identify areas of shared concern and opportunity. Greenleaf (1973, p. 35) states it well: "The enemy is strong natural servants who have the potential to lead but do not lead, or who choose to follow a non-servant. If institutions are to be improved in an imperfect world, we must see 'the problem' as residing 'in here' and not 'out there.' " The task force's ultimate objective is to create an institutional marketing plan that includes programmatic, departmental, functional, and individual marketing plans. As part of the whole, the separate plans should support both the mission and objectives of the institution.

The Vulnerable Ones

In the 1980s, the governing board, chief executive officer, and persons in admissions and public contact roles will be vulnerable to blame and direct attack from many internal and external publics. Non-

profit marketing is research and facts based, which obviously helps in protecting the competent. In the same manner, factual information helps to remove the cover of limited or nonaccountability due to inadequate reporting systems. Difficult questions must be asked and answers given on a regular basis. The following questionnaire was used at an Association of Governing Boards (AGB) National Trustees Workshop in October 1978. It appeared in the March/April 1979 issue of *AGB Reports* and could be used to help an institution complete a self-audit for nonprofit marketing readiness.

1. Would nonprofit marketing be met with a positive reception at your institution?
2. Does the governing board have a marketing committee?
3. Does the chief executive officer present a yearly marketing plan at the annual meeting of the governing board?
4. Does the chief executive officer understand and support a total marketing concept (TMC)?
5. Is marketing research conducted on a regular basis and shared with the governing board, administration, and faculty?
6. Are attrition and retention studies completed each year and shared with the governing board, administration, and faculty?
7. Are governing board members, administrators, and faculty members included in program reviews/program terminations, or program development, as part of the marketing process?
8. Are you satisfied with the publications/promotion/publicity efforts at your institution?
9. Do you feel that significant publics are surveyed on a regular basis as to needed services, institutional image, or perception?
10. In examining population, demographic, and high school projections, are you confident that your major enrollment base is secure?

If the affirmative responses number seven or more, the institution has developed a positive attitude toward nonprofit marketing and planning. If affirmative responses number six or fewer, attention should be given to nonprofit marketing.

Identifying and Serving Needs

Community colleges have always attempted to be needs based and now should consider taking the next step to a marketing-centered management environment. With a limited geographic, district, or tax support student market, the served and yet-to-be-served publics assume greater importance. Taxpayers, legislators, voters, and other fiscal supports may be as critical to the marketing effort as the effort to attract student enrollments. Market research, a step beyond traditional institutional research, can supply the data, identify trends, and give information that will assist the community college manager in "making the case" for his or her college. To understand its various publics, community colleges must ask questions such as the following:

1. What is the public's understanding of postsecondary opportunities in the district?
2. What are the awareness and choice processes followed by traditional and nontraditional students?
3. What are the public's perceived "quality of education" attitudes at your college?
4. What does the public perceive as the "characteristics" and services of the college?
5. What are the attitudes and perceptions of employers in the district?
6. How do various publics receive information?
7. What are the public's impressions/reactions to your mailing and public relations pieces?
8. Do various market segments feel the college is serving them?
9. What are the general attitudes of past, present, and potential students toward the college?
10. Is the college seen as "our" community college?

These questions are but a few of the continuing questions that must be asked, along with internal surveys. The key factor would seem to be whether the findings and results are incorporated in the management, change, and marketing process. If not, marketing research is little more than an expensive and time-consuming exercise. As Gleazer (1979, p. 3) wrote, "the central element in the mission of community colleges must be a deliberate aim to narrow that gap between the num-

ber of adult learners and those who are not. Community colleges must be aware and responsive to the people of limited options, those who are place bound, time bound, money bound, and constrained by other forces in our society. Community colleges must stake out their claim to this responsibility. They must be more than responsive. They must lead." He added, "What is the case for the community college? What do we want to be?" Certainly these are tough questions each institution must ask of itself.

A New Era

Even the prestigious American Council on Education urged that new strategies be considered in higher education: "measures that are being urged to consider are a sophisticated analysis of their 'markets,' improved student retention rates, better recruiting techniques and ties with businesses that will encourage their workers to take advantage of tuition aid plans," (quoted in Maeroff, 1979).

Nonprofit marketing alone cannot solve the enrollment, quality, credibility, and fiscal problems of higher education. However, it can assist individual institutions in looking at the position they hold, the position they may be forced to hold, or the position they may want to hold in the future. The media has not been kind to postsecondary education in the last several years. The media as the "bearer of bad news" should not be viewed as the enemy. The Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education report quoted by Scully (1979) warned that "Signs are proliferating that some colleges and universities—and some of their students—are engaging in ethically dubious, if not illegal, behavior. Increasingly desperate efforts to enroll and retain students in the 1980s and 1990s could accelerate the ethical deterioration already apparent in some parts of academic life." Among the signs of deterioration, the Council cited cheating by students on academic assignments, misuse by students of public financial aid, theft and destruction of valuable university property—most specifically library books and journals, inflation of grades by faculty members, competitive awarding of academic credits and degrees by some departments and by some institutions for insufficient and inadequate academic work, and inflated and misleading advertising by some institutions in the search for students.

The Carnegie report underlines the serious nature of higher education's problems. Higher education exists at the will of the public,

and public confidence must not be further eroded. At the community college, local forces positively or negatively impact the institution. Unless the significant publics understand what is being done well, what is being improved, and what remains to be done, they will make judgments based on misinformation or inadequate information. Community colleges and society cannot afford to let the public operate in a communications vacuum. Community college leaders must be problem solvers. The community college, and all of postsecondary education, have confronted problems before and prevailed. Society cannot expect less now, and nonprofit marketing may be the educational manager's method of effecting change and building confidence.

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Institutional renewal, unless it links directly to data, will be almost impossible. However, few are actually aware of the state-of-the-art tools available to generate data that link directly to planning for such renewal.

Information for Institutional Renewal

Richard L. Spencer

During these uneasy times of constrained resources and falling enrollments, many postsecondary educational managers are searching for methods of institutional renewal. Institutional renewal seems especially timely for community colleges in order to serve better their constituency and thereby ensure the institution's healthy survival. However, to suggest change during a time of crisis causes much anxiety among organizational members.

Thus, a major obstacle to overcome for most colleges is selection of an understandable process with which to begin renewal. After that comes selection of state-of-the-art data base products and training of people to support the process. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss a successful planning process for institutional renewal and the reliance and interaction of this process upon a research data base.

Planning, Management, Evaluation (PME)

A PME system has a twofold objective: help achieve educational objectives in a creative and economically sound manner and sup-

port orderly institutional decision making. A major rationale for implementation of a PME system is that organizational decision making relative to active resource management can be most effective when timely and appropriate kinds of information are made available. Therefore, resource allocation intended to meet institutional goals will be a considerable improvement over present practices.

Figure 1 shows a PME system that can be used to meet the two objectives and the rationale. The focus is to train people in state-of-the-art products for use in a planning process that leads toward institutional renewal.

The focal point of a PME system is a substantive objective-based institutional planning process. Substantive planning (Richardson and others, 1977) is characterized by broadness of scope; integration of decisions concerning program, facilities, and budget; definition of priorities; continuous rather than sporadic activity; use of a research data base; broad participation of faculty and administrators; and emphasis on process rather than the plan itself. The real purpose of such planning is to face the future knowing what you want to be as well as how to become it.

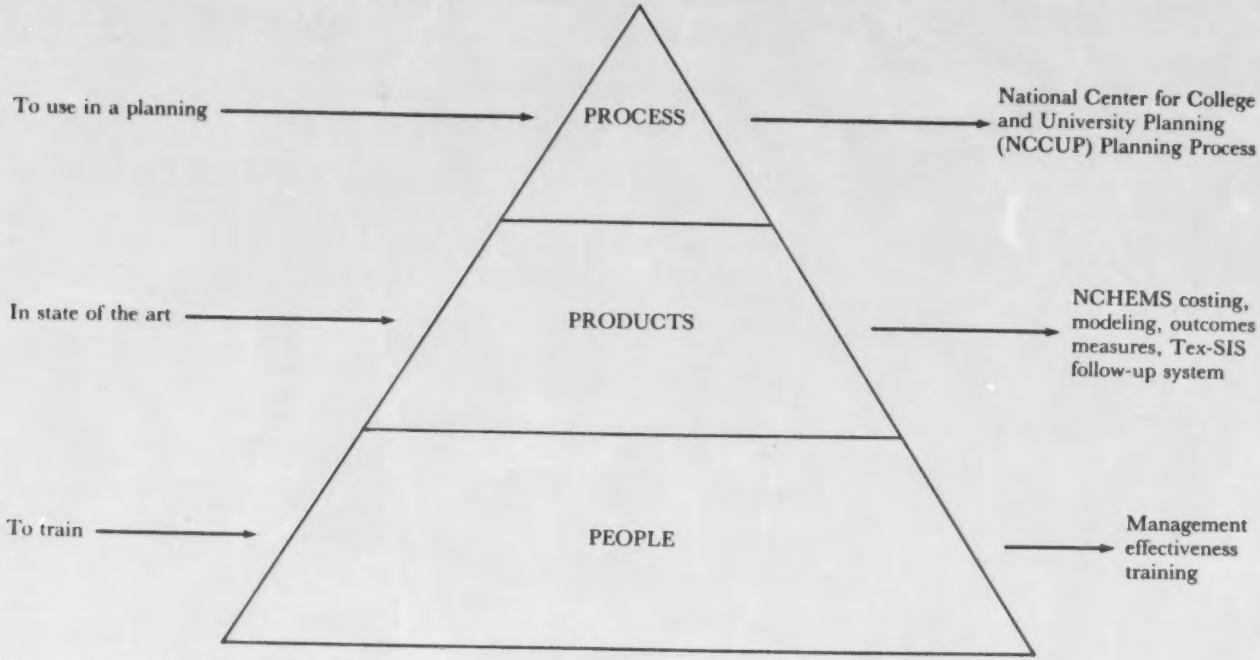
Planning Process

Figure 2 shows an objective-based planning process that has been implemented at several institutions. Success of a planning process is predicated upon strategic planning (what you want to be) and long-range planning (how to become it). Several innovative areas are a scenario to provide a narrative description of the organization as it wants to be in the future, performance-oriented job descriptions for board of trustee members and college staff, a personal objective and performance standards evaluation system, an institutional evaluation system, and a yearly operational plan. Each of the components of this planning process assists in the implementation of goals and evaluation of results (Spencer, 1979).

In Pursuit of Institutional Renewal: A Research Data Base

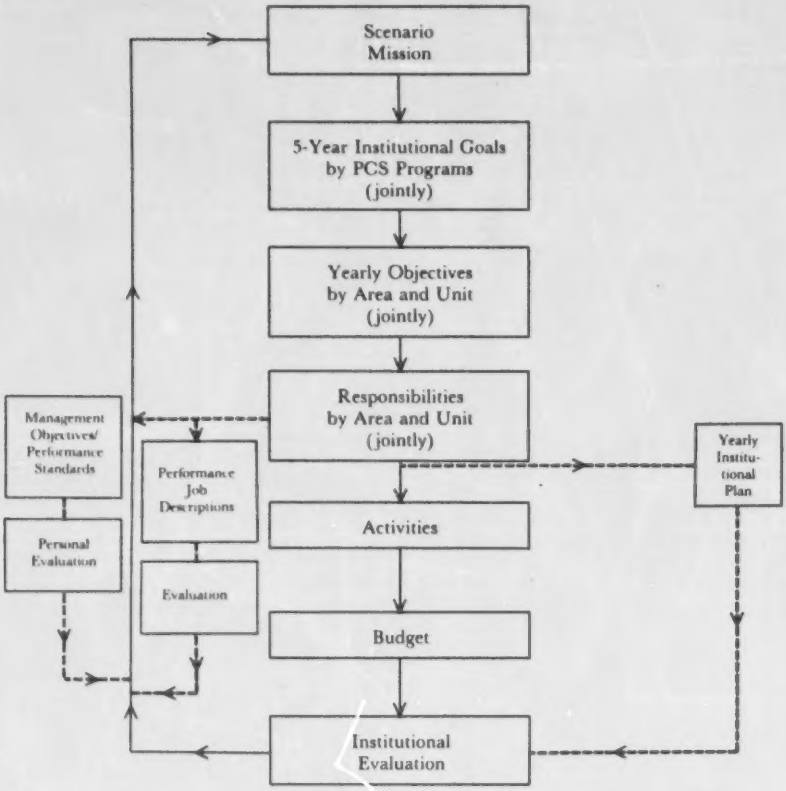
Since a major function of a planning process is to provide the framework on which to hang the empirical world in an orderly and coherent manner (which leads to institutional renewal), a proper

Figure 1. Planning, Management, Evaluation System
(Absence of any element will cause system failure. People, products, and processes all interact)


To use in a planning
PROCESS
National Center for College and University Planning (NCCUP) Planning Process
In state of the art
PRODUCTS
NCHEMS costing, modeling, outcomes measures, Tex-SIS follow-up system
To train
PEOPLE
Management effectiveness training

Designed by Richard Spencer and Stephen Dock

Figure 2. Objective-Based Planning Process



Adapted from Parekh (1977).

research data base becomes quite important. Without it, the important decisions leading to institutional change are suspect and difficult to defend.

Institutional research, as practiced over the last decade, has been perceived as being narrow in scope and unrelated to the decision-making process. Another limitation of institutional research has been that management does not use its findings. It seems fairly clear that these perceptions are fueled by the lack of a planning process that integrates accurate research data. Thus, the suggested objective-based planning process overcomes these difficulties by demanding that planning and research be inextricably bound in pursuit of institutional

renewal. Institutional research, unless it links directly to institutional renewal, will not survive organizational changes in these times of constrained resources. These ideas imply a very close relationship among planning, research, objective-based data, and institutional renewal.

The Research Link to Planning

Given the suggested PME system and the proposed relationship of planning to institutional renewal, let us assess an institutional data base in such a setting. The chief executive officer and his or her staff will need, at a minimum, a market analysis (community needs analysis), student projections, student perceptions, historical costs, and projected future costs. These are sophisticated and substantial data collection problems that can be resolved only through the acquisition of a well-founded data base. Note that such findings, when associated with objective-based planning, will largely overcome the major limitation associated with the present practice of institutional research—real management usage of the data base. The planning process forces the need for and use of objective data by management.

Other important areas of study relating to data base management are monitoring the effectiveness and efficiency of the college's programs and services, support for course evaluation, and assisting in the evaluation of the economic impact of the college upon its service area. In essence, those responsible for research data base management and analysis will assume the role of a clearinghouse: collecting, selecting, and disseminating timely and actionable data for institutional renewal.

We may conclude that by linking a research data base to planning, major limitations of present research will be overcome. Studies will be institutionally attuned. They will be action oriented; they will be decision oriented; they will not emulate quasi-experimental graduate school studies; and finally, they will be perceived as an important part of institutional renewal with a true and necessary organizational function.

Professional Personnel

Given that future I have suggested for institutional research, a major question arises regarding the need for professional research personnel. We can best explore this question by reviewing those attributes

that will increase the probability of professional success within a milieu of institutional renewal. Nationally, there seems to be a heightening sense that the quest should be for a well-rounded academic preparation with specific skills in analysis. Such preparation would include the scientific method, systems analysis and theory, organizational theory, data processing, and financial operations. Each of these fields uses quantitative analysis in a practical and realistic manner. The formal curriculum most closely resembling reasonable broadness with quantitative analysis in today's educational market is that leading to the master's degree in business administration.

Another important area bearing upon success is disciplined life experiences. Some of the most important personal strengths a research officer can bring to the position in the always changing environment of postsecondary education are leadership skills, communicative skills, and group process skills. Development of these will greatly aid in addressing problems and in finding creative solutions. All in all, the successful research officer thinks in terms of results, has high standards, is practical and to the point, likes to involve others, needs and uses feedback, and is willing to take risks in the very conservative atmosphere of postsecondary education.

Up to this point, a conceptual view of a particular planning process and its linkage to institutional research has been shown. Let us now turn our attention toward actual information needs for institutional renewal.

State-of-the-Art Informational Products

Information needed for institutional renewal and internal management fall into three basic categories. Sheehan (1972) has described them as planning and management (forecasting), management information systems (analytic reports), and information systems (transactional data). The importance of such categorization is to prevent the confusion created by attempting to use data in an improper mode. There are many instances of institutional problem solving relying upon data produced for a completely different level of management. However, most managers feel fortunate to have any type of data relating to the problem at hand and generally do not realize the dangers inherent in drawing conclusions based upon such. It thus becomes imperative that an institution be able not only to generate a data base but to recognize the management level of the data.

Establishment of a Program Data Base

One of the most difficult aspects of establishing a data base is to identify the proper tools to be used in generating needed information. When that task is combined with arraying information within the previously mentioned categories, one is faced with a seemingly insurmountable problem. However, a simple matrix with the cells indicating the state-of-the-art tools available to the researcher will be of considerable assistance.

The use of such a matrix can be helpful to the research officer in establishing an ongoing informational program to aid institutional renewal by assisting in the selection of state-of-the-art tools most needed at the institution; by illustrating the types of data needed within major programmatic areas; and by assisting in setting goals and objectives for the research office.

All in all, the use of this matrix should provide some institutional perspective for recommending resource allocations that relate to planning, management, and evaluation. In turn, this should enhance efforts for institutional renewal and efforts at monitoring the efficiency and effectiveness of programs and services.

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Governing boards and presidents may have new strain in their relationships as retrenchment sets in. A new board structure is proposed along with joint review.

The Marriage of Presidents and Boards

Richard T. Ingram

Trustees of community colleges from all over the nation gathered to participate in a conference in the mid-1970s. One of the more popular sessions was entitled "Shall We Fire or Retread the President?" The fact that such a choice of words was used at all underpins the theme of this chapter: Trustees and chief executives should examine their relationship from time to time. They should determine whether their roles and responsibilities are clear and complementary rather than confusing; mutually supporting and respectful rather than adversarial; positive and constructive rather than divisive. They need to reassure themselves that their marriage is sound.

The current annual turnover rate among chief executives of public two-year colleges and technical institutes is about 11 percent; some eighty-six positions are open each year. Average tenure, or years in office, has been about nine years for community college presidents for the past four years, although this seems surprisingly high. It compares favorably with a national average of eight years for all postsecondary institutions for the same period (National Center for Educa-

tion Statistics, 1978). In a preceding period, Cohen and March (1974) found that ten years was the average length of a college presidency. These facts do not by themselves make a convincing case that a problem does or does not exist. Every professional has some optimum period of stamina and creativity within a particular setting. Turnover, by itself, is not bad.

But premature divorce caused by confusion of role, suspicion, insensitivity to simple human needs, or politicized boards runs great risk of damaging personal *and institutional* reputation and integrity. Governing boards and presidents share considerable responsibility to see that the quality of their relationship is maintained by occasionally and candidly taking stock of the effects of new pressures and changing circumstances. Early corrective measures can make the difference between a president who leaves office before he or she can give all that can and should be given and one who is helped to grow personally and professionally and between a board whose members remain divisive and contentious and one that is consistent and positive in leadership.

An interesting and mixed picture emerges from a national survey designed in part to assess the quality of relationships between chief executives and their boards of trustees (Drake, 1977). A summary of that study based on returns from 435 presidents and 333 chairpersons at 545 public community colleges shows:

- Sixty-six percent of the presidents saw their boards spending considerable time on "involvement with internal administrative matters." About the same percentage of board chairpersons shared that opinion, but they also felt the board *should* spend considerable time on such matters, a view shared by only 12 percent of the presidents.
- Sixty percent of presidents and chairpersons ranked their respective boards in the highest category of general effectiveness.
- Twenty-six percent of the presidents identified "board support of president and/or college" as the most significant contribution of their boards. By contrast, 13 percent of responding chairpersons selected this category, second in choice only to "selecting a new president or making policy calling for reorganization of the administration (15 percent)."
- Twenty-one percent of the presidents cited various "board functions" as the area of greatest concern to them. By contrast, 10 percent of the chairpersons agreed and cited it as the fourth most pressing problems confronting their institutions.

This same survey, conducted by the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges (AACJC) with the cooperation of the Association of Community College Trustees (ACCT) and the Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges (AGB), acknowledges that the majority of college presidents seemed to feel that the roles of the board and the office of chief executive were defined adequately. Although the issue of who sets policies and who administers them seemed to be clear at most institutions, the study concluded that it does affect relationships between boards and chief executives at a few institutions: "when the problem does exist, it causes greater concern among chief executives than among chairmen."

The Board's Role

One of the board's most important responsibilities is to make the final decision in selecting a chief executive and to decide when his or her services should be terminated. But some boards fail to recognize their vital role between these events: to nurture, to support, to defend, and to counsel. Assuming a competent person is meeting the demands of the presidency consistent with agreed upon performance criteria as may have been in place at the time of selection and subsequently revised in light of new institutional goals, the board should see that adversarial conditions do not develop unnecessarily. Great skill is required on both sides.

Given the turnover on boards of trustees, especially in states with district elections, maintaining sound relationships is an incessant challenge. Those new to their trusteeships, for example, are also new to any prior understandings between the president and the board. The new trustee is susceptible to any factions on the board, including attitudes toward the president's management style. This can be a particularly acute problem for a small board.

It is incumbent upon the board as a whole to recognize that changes in board composition, coupled with new institutional circumstances and pressures, can place tremendous strain on the chief executive. He or she is required to adjust more to new ambiguities and working conditions than is any single board member (or faculty member). The board's investment in presidential leadership should not be threatened by the fickle and sometimes unreasonable winds of politics. Along the same line, faculties should realize more than their records show that they, too, have a stake in stable leadership. The burden of maintaining good relationships is a joint responsibility.

Good marriages often prevail in spite of adversity because, from time to time, the partners consciously renew their vows. Boards should take pride in their responsiveness to difficult situations that require them to get out in front of their presidents. Wise presidents muster necessary support *before* an unpopular decision is made. Nevertheless, surprises do occur; it is the truly competent board that aids the president rather than abets his or her critics. Subsequent counseling, where the board and the chief executive exchange views on events preceding what some may perceive as a crisis in their relationship, may be necessary. Open minds and candor are essential.

It is the fortunate president who can depend on a chairperson and at least one or two other respected members for occasional advice. He or she should seek such help on a regular basis for private exchange when the going gets rough. But it is the board as a whole that determines whether it is being truly supportive, fair in its criticism, and helpful in its suggestions. The full board should view the chief executive's job as being nearly impossible, one that includes the added and delicate duty of educating the trustees themselves concerning their individual and collective functions. The chief executive should be firmly encouraged to administer a program of board development for new and experienced board members (Gollattscheck, 1978). Such encouragement contradicts any view of the president as the board's "employee."

The President's Role

The president's role in cultivating sound relationships with the board is equally difficult. A continuing education program to help acclimate new board members to their trusteeship and the college should rest squarely on the president (and the chairperson), for example, but this depends on the board's willingness to recognize the president's role. The president should consistently recognize the board's policy function.

Presidents should know when it is time to move on. The old axiom, Know Thyself, means knowing when you have done all that can be done, when creativity and opportunities for further growth are gone, when the board's composition or disposition bear no resemblance to the board that confirmed the appointment. How many presidents have heard their peers who moved elsewhere from presidencies lament they should have done so two years earlier? At best, it is probably the most difficult decision a president can make, particularly when his or her record is outstanding.

Few would argue with the observation that mutual confidence *must* exist between the president and the board. But a new set of circumstances may be at work that militates against sound relationships, factors beyond presidential leadership and influence. Such psychological and subtle changes may stem in part from the new trials of steady state following on the heels of phenomenal expansion in the community college sector and in part from styles of board operation that remain from the manner local public school boards still conduct their business.

Pressures on the Maturing Marriage

The marriage metaphor is helpful to make the contention that presidents and boards may be entering a period of new frustration and new challenge. What follows may be subject to the criticism that it exaggerates and generalizes, but it is offered as a hypothesis to be tested against the future rather than the past. It anticipates an added complexity in future president/board relationships that may cause premature rifts.

In the same way that a young marriage is often held together in pursuit of common purpose, presidents and boards have enjoyed an intensive honeymoon. The public community college was born in 1892 but was nourished and brought into young adulthood with the greatest fervor only within the past twenty-five years. Now the challenges of rapid and successful expansion and development are complete. Will boards whose members recall the exciting and challenging days of growth unfairly see their presidents as becoming too complacent? Will presidents increasingly see their boards becoming overzealous and lacking in new leadership style required as colleges settle into a more competitive and contracting mode?

As public community colleges continue to evolve from their organizational and operational origins in public school systems, a different form of board may be necessary to allow community college governance to reach its next stage of development and effectiveness. What is suggested here is something akin to the revolution that took place when local school boards across the country "wore two hats," only to give away finally to separate boards.

A New Board Model

This section outlines some radical changes in how community college boards might be structured in the future. Implicit is the notion

that relationships between trustees and presidents can be strengthened as one major consequence. Pray (1975) offers more along a similar line.

Board Size and Trustee Selection. Community college boards typically consist of seven or nine members, a characteristic that has allowed them to do much in a short time. But the demands of trusteeship may now call for larger boards of perhaps sixteen to twenty-four members with staggered terms. Nominees should be put forward to the governor, for his or her subsequent appointment and confirmation by the state senate, by a standing nominating committee of prominent citizens at the district level in accordance with preestablished guidelines and selection criteria. Any board preferences based on a needs assessment should be made known to and welcomed by the committee.

A board is only as sound as its membership, as free as possible from partisan politics, special interest group dominance, or individuals who seize upon their trusteeships to advance personal or political aims. It should be blessed with adequate numbers of persons of balanced judgment, competence, and varied and complementary talents. Among the backgrounds and skills that should be covered in trusteeships but that smaller boards often preclude are budget and finance, planning, management, legal affairs, plant management, real estate, education, public relations, marketing, and governmental relations.

Terms of Office. Four-year terms, with a maximum of two consecutive terms, seem best. Truly outstanding persons could be reappointed for one final term following a one-year sabbatical.

Board Organization. Regular board meetings should be held six times annually (in contrast to the current national *mean* of fifteen), plus special or committee meetings. There may have been need for more frequent meetings in the past, but an active committee structure coupled with a larger board could reduce the burden on individual trustees and still cover all the bases. At the same time, it could reduce any temptation to spill into administrative business.

Officerships should be rotated on some reasonable basis. Opportunities to lead by those who demonstrate unusual ability should be available both with regard to the positions of chairperson, vice-chairperson, secretary, treasurer, and committee chairpersons.

Committees are currently used in a limited way by only two-fifths of community college boards. A larger board would enable greater attention to be given to specialized areas of board responsibility through a committee system (see Ellison and Eadie, 1978).

In some ways the foregoing sketch is an argument with success.

After all, the majority of community college boards seem to be functioning exceptionally well with their current size and methods of trustee selection. But a case can be made for greater community involvement through larger numbers of good minds than even seven or nine of the most dedicated trustees can provide. The future demands on the nation's community colleges, their presidents, boards, and faculties, suggest a new governance pattern may be desirable and necessary.

New Preoccupations

Such a change might also be accompanied by some new themes and a revival of some old ones to be shared by all sectors of higher education.

Mission Reexamination. To avoid the "vending machine syndrome" of offering all things to all persons, whether in the name of good marketing strategy or continued expansion, boards and presidents should return in some instances to having their college do those things it can truly do well. This entails, in part, a greater role for trustees in program review with faculties and administrations.

Interinstitutional Cooperation. Administrators have not demonstrated particularly successful efforts in this area, in part because of their perhaps natural reluctance to sacrifice some institutional flexibility. Need remains for greater trustee participation with chief executives to adopt sensible cooperative programs in a period of retrenchment.

Role Definition and Implementation. The majority of chief executives and boards have worked out clearer statements of their respective roles and responsibilities. What is needed now is more consistent adherence to them. Presidents should be given greater encouragement to see that nonpolicy issues do not creep on to board agendas. Boards should be more diligent in their own review of their meeting agendas along this line. (A case already has been made for less frequent meetings to reduce the temptation of spilling into administrative matters.)

Performance Standards. Much has been done by many institutions on this score in recent years. But window dressing now needs to be separated from substantive programs of self-assessment for boards and presidents. Both trustees and chief executives should accept the fact that review of either party in such a process is also a review of the other. Board and presidential leadership are inseparable.

One is tempted to go on to half a dozen other possibilities. What really matters, however, is that presidents and boards work out agendas that sustain their confidence in one another in mutual pursuit of common goals. A radical change in the structure of community college boards may not be necessary. Nor may be the pursuit of different preoccupations. But a reassessment of working relationships between presidents and boards at some community colleges where it is needed is apparently not being done or is being done poorly. A brief checklist of good practices may enable presidents and trustees to look objectively at themselves. Chapter 8 in Nason (1979) can provide some good common ground for good discussion.

A quick review of some key factors that influence board-president relations may be helpful. The following list is neither comprehensive nor exhaustive; additional areas could be easily added.

- Does the board have a good record of support of the president on sensitive issues or difficult decisions in difficult as well as good times?
- Is there a climate of mutual respect and trust that is seen clearly by the faculty and other groups?
- Do trustees avoid openly criticizing their president to individuals on or off the campus? (Does the president avoid such criticism of his or her board?)
- Does the board discourage individual trustees from conducting themselves primarily as "representatives" of special interest groups?
- Does the board's membership avoid cliques or factions on presidential recommendations regardless of the issues involved?
- Does the board discourage critics of the administration from communicating directly with individual trustees?
- Does the board deal effectively with any trustee who forgets he or she has no special prerogatives or legal standing except as a member of the body corporate in formal sessions unless specifically delegated by the board to speak on its behalf?
- Do individual trustees avoid asking members of the administration for information without the knowledge of the board and chief executive?
- Does the board deal effectively with any trustee who uses his or her trusteeship as a platform to advance political or personal ambition?

- Is the board critical of presidential initiatives to maintain close relationship with the faculty when its own relationship may be strained?
- Is there an especially good working relationship between the president and the chairperson?
- Does the board avoid having its own office on the campus lest the trustees give the impression of administrators rather than policymakers?
- Does the board see to it that the president is provided opportunities for self-renewal through educational programs and leisure away from campus?
- Is the president made to feel comfortable in seeking private advice and counsel from individual trustees?

At one time or another any board and president will likely have to contend with one or more of these frustrations. But a persistently poor record may be symptomatic of a problem.

Conclusion

Good governing boards and chief executives have an investment in one another. Honeymoons are not intended to last forever; presidents know they have chosen a high-risk career. It is the challenge of dealing with the ambiguity of changing conditions and human relationships that draws competent persons to presidencies. Most are up to the job; some are not. Most are tireless; some are tired. Even in ideal circumstances, however, only presidents know the full burden of executive leadership in an "organized anarchy" and the help they need to fulfill it.

Community college boards across the country have demonstrated their ability to recognize and reward competent managerial and educational leadership. Now the challenge shared by all of academe is to preserve and foster what has been accomplished. Boards and presidents should set time aside to look together at where they have been and where they want to go in their relationships.

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This chapter provides a synthesis of thought from each contributor's point of view on needed institutional changes.

Concluding Comments

Robert E. Lahti

In previous chapters most of the contributing authors suggested modifications in the way educational administrators view or manage certain aspects of their institutions. By inference, if not by direct statements, the authors suggested that higher education needs to adjust or change in specific areas. They intimated that there is a certain lack of public confidence in many of our established societal institutions (business, government, and higher education). While this mistrust or lack of confidence may be stronger toward government and corporate business at the present time, it has the potential for increasing toward higher education.

An examination of corporate credibility problems as acknowledged and discussed a few years ago might benefit educational institutions. In a 1976 Conference Board study of 368 American businesses in which corporate external relations were viewed by corporate chief executive officers and their external staff relations experts, it was agreed that the most serious issue management needed to address was the lack of business credibility with the public. When asked, "What do you see as the most critical issue facing your company and American business with regard to relations with external publics today?" 107 of 185 chief

executive officers of major companies cited a growing distrust on the part of the general public toward U.S. companies. The reasons for mistrust were varied but not unique. Higher education could well consider these reasons as it attempts to address the need for change and maintenance of credibility with its constituents in the future.

Many of the senior executives believed the need for improved communication was at the heart of the problem of the public's distrust of business. One leader outlining his perspective of the erosion of public confidence cited two general causes: business' failure to communicate and to be responsive. He indicated that in the past business leaders were too much preoccupied with managing their businesses to see the necessity of explaining and reaffirming to the public the benefits of business or the free enterprise system. He said the situation had been aggravated by the tendency of business leaders to be less open with the public regarding the operation of their business. As a result, many Americans not only remained uninformed about the practical economic realities of business but came to believe its leaders were involved in clandestine operations. Thus, the public demanded more and more disclosure of information about the company's operations. It is significant to note that from this deterioration in business credibility flowed other critical issues, such as government regulation of business. Corporate spokespersons felt increased mistrust led the public to demand that the government protect them by placing more and more constraints on business.

A parallel might now be drawn about higher education. There appears to be a public perception that a certain malaise affects higher education. The public, correctly or incorrectly, believes there is waste in its universities and colleges. They hear of tenure and conclude it has become a job security device for the incompetent as well as the competent. They suspect collective bargaining will impair collegiality, drive up costs, and lead to prolonged strikes. They see statistics indicating that graduates cannot get jobs they were led to expect while at the same time institutions recruit vigorously for more students in the same disciplines. They ask whether the admission of ill-prepared students without proper support is not a simple device to fill classrooms in order to justify state appropriations and to produce tuition revenue. They see examples of plagiarism by both teachers and students, faculty departures from serious appraisal of colleagues, grade inflation and unwarranted recommendations for students, unjustified imposition of prerequisites, and a general inability of governance systems to render timely

decisions and deal with critical issues. Higher education also has a credibility problem that needs attention. Two of the general causes, like those for business, might be the failure of higher education to communicate with and to its constituents and its failure to be responsive.

Like the authors of the previous chapters, I underscore the need for higher education institutions to modify their attitudes, behaviors, or ways of managing certain aspects of their institutions in order to maintain or improve their credibility with the public in the years ahead. The words "change" and "flexibility" are once again household words among educational managers as they describe the past and look at the future. It will be important to keep in mind the phrase, "At every crossway on the road that leads to the future each progressive spirit is opposed by a thousand men appointed to guard the past."

In a rapidly changing society, managers will need to increase their skills at diagnosing resistance to change and in the strategies they choose for bringing about change. It does not take much experience to understand that organizational change efforts often run into some form of human resistance. Although wise managers may be generally aware of this fact, too few take time to assess systematically who might resist change initiative and for what reasons. Kotter and Schlesinger (1979) suggest that in order to predict what form organizational resistance might take, managers need to be aware of why people resist change. There are four common reasons: a desire not to lose something of value, a misunderstanding of the change and its implications (lack of trust), a different assessment or a belief that change does not make sense for the organization, and a low tolerance for change.

Kotter and Schlesinger go on to suggest strategies for dealing with resistance to change, all of which might have some application for educational managers as they attempt to bring about change within their organization.

What have all the contributors to this volume said about change? What are the specific recommendations that should be considered in order to restore and maintain the public confidence in higher education that has been somewhat eroded in recent years? American higher education has long and effectively served its constituents by advancing and disseminating knowledge. It also has developed abilities to be critical of its own performance, while society grants substantial protection for its professors to act as critics of society. Given the public perception that a certain malaise affects higher education, the contributors to this volume suggest the following changes within our institutions:

- Institutions should state their goals explicitly and devise methods for accurately reporting both their accomplishments and their shortcomings.
- Every institution should make major efforts to provide accurate and complete information on such items as finances, investment policies, facilities, and salaries.
- Every academic institution must be explicit about the expected ethical behavior of its teachers, administrators, staff, and students and assume some responsibility for compliance.
- In the face of declining enrollments, institutions must plan and implement cooperative actions to reduce the size and cost of their operation without jeopardizing quality and access to higher education.
- In order to respond effectively to changing conditions, institutions must be prepared to change organizational structures if they become dysfunctional, to modify curricula, and to experiment with new teaching methods.
- An institution must have effective information data systems at its disposal use this data with effective planning systems.
- Institutions must communicate and inform their constituents accurately and in depth about the unique services they offer.
- Institutions need to become more consumer oriented both internally and externally yet not give up their ideal of maximum autonomy and self-regulation.
- Institutions must engage in sound financial planning in order to minimize spreading their resources too thin to too many causes.
- Educational managers must make many psychological adjustments and use a team approach to decision making in many of the political activities they will encounter in the years ahead.
- Academic managers must be ever cognizant of the characteristics distinguishing academic organizations from organizations "managed" for a profit motive.
- Policy-making trustees must develop safeguards for competent educational managers who exercise courageous leadership in maintaining or raising the quality of education and who guard the institution against the intrusion of self-serving individuals or groups.

- Each institution must provide for a periodic review of faculty performance, including assessments of teaching ability, as well as the assessment of management performance.
- Colleges must not misrepresent their course offerings, job prospects for graduates, facilities, or other aspects of their institution.
- Colleges must provide more effective consumer-oriented academic and career counseling.
- Each institution, in the face of declining demand for young faculty, must seek ways to encourage, develop, and employ the next generation of teaching scholars.
- Each institution must develop new approaches in its relationships and in the utilization of its human resources, who are so crucial to the continuing vitality of an institution.
- Affirmative steps must be taken to increase the employment of the number of qualified women and ethnic minority groups in teaching and upper-level administrative positions.
- Higher education must protect and promote a hospitable environment in which the critical evaluation of all views and opinions can be exercised without subverting itself to serve special interest groups whose goals may be counter to the purposes of liberal education.
- Institutions must provide the necessary responses for essential faculty and staff development, retraining, and perhaps retirement planning.

In conclusion, collegiate institutions must become more proficient in communicating the distinctive character of colleges and universities, their unique decision-making style, their unhurried pace of change, their vulnerability in times of conflict, and the unavoidable distortions that may be caused by varying financial support. If they wish to enjoy the trust and self-regulating responsibility they so eloquently articulate, they must continue to seek new methods by which each institution may be relied upon to account for the ethical and financially responsible behavior of their members. Without proper execution of this high level of institutional responsibility, more bureaucratic control will threaten institutional self-direction and the sovereignty that is so essential to open inquiry. A democracy that does not safeguard and strengthen the integrity of higher education and at the same time foster pluralism by preserving both public and private education can-

not thrive. In the challenging years ahead, higher education managers and faculties must be more open and more communicative than ever before in order to justify the continued support they need. The time to begin is now.

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Robert E. Lahti, president of Community College of Denver and founding president of William Rainey Harper College (Illinois) has consulted and written extensively on the effective management of colleges and universities.

Further resources from the ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges can help readers sample innovative ideas for the more effective management of resources in the future.

Sources and Information on Planning and Management of Resources

Roseann M. Cacciola

This chapter reports on references pertinent to issues discussed in the foregoing chapters. All these sources are in the ERIC collection and may be distinguished by the ED number following the citation. Information on ordering abstracts or full copies of these ERIC documents appears in the reference list following this chapter.

Resource Planning and Management

As the community college generally reassesses its goals and priorities in an era of reduced public support, enrollment decline, and changing consumer interests, the need to institute programs for the most effective use of personnel is clear. Reduction in force, retraining programs, and flexible use of staff and faculty on hand are issues facing community college managers today. A program flexibility study prepared by Miner (1979) provides a model to improve planning within

instructional department budgets to produce quick alternative use of faculty in the event of reduced funding or enrollment. Illustrations of flexible use of the formula are given. White (1978) explains a faculty retraining program for lateral transfer to avoid layoff when reduction in force is the policy. The faculty retraining experiences in Florida, New York, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin are described. A review of California's enabling legislation and professional growth policies precedes a review of the pros and cons of faculty retraining programs in the Los Angeles Community College District.

Two studies provide a general and a specific view of the need for professional development programs. Coward and others (1978) explore the relationship between professional development and a planning, management, and evaluation system. One chapter concentrates on professional staff and classified personnel, another on a particular program in Seattle, with rationale for faculty growth contracts. The final three chapters present a human development model, tips on inservice workshops, and helpful appendices and checklists. Cooper and others (1978) describe in detail the Professional Development Program at Lansing Community College (Michigan). Discussion includes integrating the professional development program with all other activities of the institution. Specific programs for the following college areas are outlined: arts and sciences, business, applied arts and sciences, college services, and learning resources.

In the years ahead, academic managers must respond to new and flexible ways of governing their institutions. Different theories about academic leadership in times of high accountability and suggested models for reorganizing governance structures are offered in several ERIC documents. In Alfred (1978), nine community college specialists explore the issue of reduced resources in the current period of declining growth. Discussions range from autonomy problems inherent in increased state and federal financial support to retrenchment models based upon responses to operating budget cuts at New York City Community College; the effects of budget cuts on instruction, instructors, and student personnel services; and suggested approaches for administrative planners facing reductions. Careful institutional planning and research can help increase institutional effectiveness if administrators will adapt to change. Institutional research is no longer a luxury but a vital internal data base source to assist management teams in reaching hard decisions in times of reduced resources. A pertinent bibliography is included.

In coping with reduced resources in the future, responsible decision makers must make intelligent choices about program changes, increases, and elimination under great pressure from groups inside and outside the college. The need for institutional research in the area of evaluation and support programs arises. A study by Stevenson and Willeri (1978) at Mount Hood Community College (Oregon) suggests that in addition to the three most used approaches to program evaluation an institution should supplement with its own data base system and its research office should be responsible for communication of data relevant to decisions affecting the entire college community. The three most basic program evaluation approaches in use are the market evaluation model based upon student enrollment trends; the teacher-administrator model, which relies on expert advice and planning to predict, stabilize, and adjust to changing student needs; and the state's evaluation model, which may have political needs incorporated with the need to prevent program overlaps or unnecessary duplications. Outlines and flowcharts illustrate the process and the role of the institutional research unit of a college in the issue of program evaluation.

The style of educational management popular in the 1960s and 1970s, as opposed to the need for new management techniques in the 1980s, is the subject of a paper prepared by Manilla (1979). As he states, quantitative, technical management techniques (PME, MBO, MIS, and the like) may have served their purpose and a qualitative approach should be considered in the future. His fear is that quantitative approaches to decision making are reducing the faculty voice in academic governance and decision making despite the acknowledged importance of faculty involvement in institutional management. He concludes that the need for an open MIS and a shared governance model is evident. A similar study is offered by Marks (1978), who also favors anthrocentric management (a decentralized participatory system) over analytical management (bureaucratic and scientific). The author provides a philosphical basis for his assessment of alternative leadership style and a complete bibliography. Eaton (1978) presents a psychological study on academic leadership that describes the leader's qualities rather than the system of leadership used by an institution. She accounts for the historical conflict between educational leaders who are academicians and who know how to manage and managers who know how to be academic. She concedes that community college leaders are neither one nor the other, but a bit of both. The study offers a behavioral context for community college leaders to involve the best

qualities of a successful "anticipatory" manager to understand the psychology of decision making and the systemic approach and how to maintain a balance.

Kinnison (1978) offers a study that specifically outlines an outcomes-oriented Planning, Management, and Evaluation (PME) system. This technical report about a PME system includes results of the efforts of two community colleges to use this method and the appendix presents examples of tools used to implement the model and a bibliography.

Personal advice to administrators on how to be a good leader and suggestions for improving communication are presented by Marsee (1979b) in his thoughtful essay on leadership. Managers' personal qualities are becoming more important to doing a good job than demonstrated skills per se. More and more, institutions are looking for leaders who can get along with people, especially in times of public pressure and reduced job security.

New strategies for financial planning are also in order during times of diminishing financial resources. An ERIC resource review by Lombardi (1979b) examines community college financing in the post-Proposition 13 era. The effects of this legislation on community college financing will not be known for some time. Meanwhile, Lombardi states, adjustment efforts by legislators and local leaders to prepare for across-the-board reductions in financial support continue. The author examines various funding patterns in use, the curtailing of noncredit courses, the loss of local autonomy, lessened commitment to the open door policy, and an end to no-tuition policies. A positive effect of decreasing finances, in Lombardi's view, is the increased concern with educational missions, functions, and governance structures.

In Ottley's (1978) view, community colleges must develop and refine fund-raising capabilities; and this involves a college's commitment to using internal resources (faculty, staff, and students) to reach objectives of institutional development programs. Grantsmanship must be practiced by all personnel; alumni activities, annual fund campaigns, and foundation support are also areas to be developed. The concept of zero-base budgeting to assist in more effective financial planning is the topic of a study by Harvey (1978). The advantages and disadvantages of zero-base budgeting in an effective PME system are analyzed. Appendices contain a list of decision units, sample forms, and a bibliography. A budgetary process that serves a college in an era of expansion and is likely to break down when the resource base is

reduced is the subject of a paper by Bers (1978). In it he describes how Gadsden State Junior College (Alabama) developed and tested a resource allocation system for two years to respond to fiscal contraction. Key elements of the system and specific problems encountered are analyzed. The study concludes that (1) financial contraction alone does not necessarily lead to program evaluation, (2) formula budgeting plus cost analysis appears to be best suited to administrators' needs, and (3) the "home-grown" process is responsive to the particular needs of a college.

Another significant and growing area receiving attention in the community colleges today is that of marketing. College managers are aware that recruitment and retention of students are crucial matters in a period of declining enrollments and financing. The literature stresses institutional need to become more consumer oriented both internally and externally while maintaining autonomy and integrity. Coppock (1979) recommends a two-year student recruitment campaign focused mainly on high school seniors and outlines elements of a successful campaign. Fischer (1978) approaches the issue in a conceptual framework, warning that selling is only one aggregate of the marketing function and does not guarantee increased enrollments. He proposes that the effectiveness of community college marketing efforts depend upon understanding the process of extending meaningful educational experiences to a heterogeneous population inquiring or applying to an open door college. Success of marketing, he states, must be measured in attendance; and this relies on a well-coordinated student services department. The marketing approach used by Moraine Valley Community College (Illinois) is explained by DeCosmo and Baratta (1979) as an effort to expand participation of underserved groups. All strategies used, which led to an increased enrollment by over 200 full-time enrollment (FTE) students in every target area, are discussed. A similar program was designed at Odessa College (Texas) to deal with declining enrollments. Eckert (1979) covers Moraine's task force approach and the absolute commitment to the program needed by the president. Appendices outline marketing task force structure, schedules, and recommendations to the president. Enrollment influences are also discussed. An interesting departmental effort to increase enrollment is presented by Fast (1979) in his report about the mathematics department at Lane Community College (Oregon). Employing educational marketing methods (pricing, product, place, and promotion criteria), the department instituted a program to create attractive class

areas, cut down registration red tape, provide humanistic assistance to students demonstrating math anxiety, secure periodic positive media coverage, and develop new courses to draw new students.

Harford Community College (Maryland) published its *Marketing Plan 1978*. Three stages are discussed: support services (especially off-campus courses), promotion (catalog, public service announcements, recruitment publications, and media), and delivery (communication, course requirements, information centers, counseling, and so forth). The report stresses the need to continually gather data, conduct market research, and evaluate the effectiveness of the plan. A review of literature dealing with marketing programs existing in community colleges is presented by El Sharei (1979). She found that although comprehensive marketing programs do not exist at many colleges, the public information office is typically bearing marketing responsibility. The study also provides an outline of marketing problems, techniques, and strategies for implementing a program. Descriptions of the marketing programs at Prince George's Community College (Maryland) and Clark College (Washington) are included.

In the area of collective bargaining and effective management, Lombardi (1979a) clearly indicates that increasing equalization of faculty and management powers in negotiations are accentuating the trend toward greater state control. Lombardi believes that collective bargaining has not destroyed collegiality and in many ways offers administrators opportunities to demonstrate leadership. Middle managers' attitudes toward the bargaining process at El Camino College (California) is the subject of a study by Kerstiens (1977). The impact of collective bargaining at the Rancho Santiago Community College District (California) is assessed by Armstrong (1978) as a negative experience and recommendations for better ways to bargain are made in this study. Appendices contain an agreement of negotiating procedures and a bibliography.

A statewide survey of how well collective bargaining is working in New Jersey two-year public colleges compared to other states is reported by Begin and others (1977). It is clear from this analysis that all parties involved at the college level need to understand the process better and be more informed in general. Extensive data and a bibliography are included. Hankin (1977) offers a step-by-step guidebook to assist community college educators in the bargaining process. Its aim is to provide steps to a better process for a better future. Weston and

others (1978) analyze the dynamics of collective bargaining in one chapter of a recent *New Directions for Community Colleges* publication.

Meeting New Educational Objectives

In meeting the problems concerning the more effective use of resources, college leaders will have to give careful thought to instruction and the curriculum in the future. "Change" will be the key word and adjusting to change will be a great challenge for faculty, administrators, and governing boards. Marsee (1978) discusses trends and issues that will influence the community college to become a greater social and economic force. How these trends affect curriculum and the quality of student-centered programs and services is the main thrust of this paper. "Change" is underscored as the single most important characteristic of the future. The ability to adjust to shifting demands of a complex and altering society without sacrificing academic responsibilities will be one major problem facing those who plan college programs. A note of warning is sounded by Zarakov (1978), who believes that unless community colleges adapt quickly to an increasing nontraditional population, they face losing the estimated eleven million students over age thirty-five expected to be studying in the early 1980s, and they may be out of business by the turn of the century. This paper offers a candid discussion of special student populations and how their educational needs must be met by the open door college. In assessing program needs for the future, a helpful tool will be guidelines to effect responsible program evaluation.

Winter and others (1977) offer such an evaluation portfolio using reality-based evaluation (RBE) criteria. Education and work linkages in the future are the topic of a paper by Korim (1978). The role of community colleges in community-based education is a key theme of this study. The umbrella term in popular usage to cover the variety of new educational objectives is that of "lifelong learning." A monograph by Gilder (1979) reports national recommendations concerning issues and problems affecting lifelong education. Of necessity, educational objectives must change, the report says; by 1985 education will be more government controlled, segmented, costly, and faculty more diversified. Each contributor to the monograph focuses on one major area of lifelong learning, including inmate training, part-time adult students, legislative policies, and how community colleges can

restructure themselves for lifelong education in terms of funding, attitudes, personnel policies, facilities, and program organization. Cross (1978) makes it clear that in the new educational missions ahead, the organization of education must change. Individualized instruction and mastery learning concepts are forcing administrators to find even newer measures of learning productivity for both students and teachers. She, too, stresses the importance of total service to the adult, nontraditional, self-directed, and more pragmatic students now in the majority. Two ERIC documents relate specifically to the relationship between trustees and college programs. Gill (1978) and Nakamura (1976) present a basic orientation for trustees to community service policies and all areas touching classroom activity. Even though trustees may not be involved in implementing educational innovations, these studies indicate they must be aware of and be able to interpret trends such as individualized programs, competency-based education, open- and exit-entry curriculum, improved articulation programs, and lifelong learning.

The Meaning of General Education for Managers in the Future

The largest segment of a community college's curriculum offering is in general education. The trend is not to decrease these course requirements but to increase them or at least to revitalize the programs. Such a revitalization is described in a document by Luckenbill and McCabe (1978), who outline Miami-Dade's three-year effort to redesign a general education program for the college. The general need to take a closer look at what this curriculum offers is the subject of a paper by Henderson and Henderson (1978), who state that the community college has the best opportunity to raise the general level of expectations, cultural undertaking, and values of all the people. Cohen (1978) suggests that general education will survive the race between courses and anticourses, but he is not certain for whom and how. He suggests that general education curriculum be put together so various types of students, including occupational, transfer, and adult drop-in, may be served. Moore (1978) poses the problem of relevancy of general education course content and suggests the need to desegregate vocational students from such studies. Observations to be considered in updating or developing general education problems are offered by Marsee (1979a). Flexibility and independent study are positive trends,

according to this document. The historical, current, and future activity discussed in general education pros and cons is the subject of *General Education Curriculum Issues for the Future in Community and Junior Colleges* (1978). In a recent report, Preusser (1978) advocates the retaining of general education in the community colleges and discusses the need to regain public confidence in its ability to teach meaningful general courses.

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From the Editor's Notes

With public confidence in higher education somewhat eroded in the past few years and the continuing debate of what constitutes legitimate higher education, can higher education afford to continue with a "business as usual" attitude? There is an urgent need for institutions to deal with problems both external and internal to the academic community, and failure to take action will have negative effects on the integrity of a college or university. The purpose of this volume of New Directions for Community Colleges *is to stimulate college managers and faculties in areas where creative thinking and new strategies may be needed for the continued development of effective and responsive community colleges. With this goal in mind, the authors address such areas as college administration, instruction, student services, personnel practices, financial planning, admissions, marketing, and trustee/administration relations.*

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